

SCHOOL AND COLLEGE.

TWO EXPERIMENTS IN UNIVERSITY EXTENSION BY A CANADIAN UNIVERSITY.

PROFESSOR ADAMS, in a recent article on American pioneers of University Extension, says that perhaps our American colleges will discover some day that they have all been engaged in University Extension without knowing it, just as M. Jourdain found to his surprise that he had been talking prose all his life. Few men know more than Professor Adams of the new movement which has recently aroused some sanguine hopes that a royal road to universal culture has at last been found, and no one gives a more exact account of what has been done or a more sober estimate of the proportion of successes to failures; but I am afraid that the illustration from Molière is calculated to foster a delusion which, if not dispelled, may do mischief. M. Jourdain's prose was the real thing; but what resemblance has an average course of popular lectures, even when given under the most learned auspices, to university work? Believing that it is desirable to have as much of the real article as possible, we must begin by estimating shoddy imitations at their proper value.

What is the aim of the university teacher? The same as that of every true teacher, only that he has the great advantage of addressing young men capable of thinking instead of boys and girls. His aim is to educate his students or make them think for themselves. This means hard, continuous work, so far as they are concerned, and only a select few care for that kind of thing. It is much more pleasant to have others do the

work, while we look on and fancy that we are taking an active part in it because we give an occasional cheer. We depart and straightway forget even what kind of work it was. All mental work means a strain that the ordinary man shrinks from. Thinking exhausts us as nothing else does. Chopping wood or digging drains is nothing to it, and therefore the wise professor knows that he must take a great deal of trouble if he is to get his students to be anything more than spectators, listeners, or memorizers. He insists on their doing work, and he calls upon them in unexpected ways. He tries all kinds of methods. He has the whip-hand of his class, too, for every one in it knows that his work is sure to be tested in some way or other, and that he has no chance of getting the hall mark unless he passes the test successfully. It does not do to crack the whip continually over the head of horse or man, but the knowledge that there is a whip in reserve does no harm and in some cases does good. It may be said that there is a great deal of indifferent or positively bad teaching in universities. That is perfectly true. But it is bad in spite of all the traditions and all the means that the average teacher has at his disposal, and how is it going to be bettered by dispensing with these?

If the new movement is to succeed it must be genuine. Only work that is entitled to university recognition should receive the name of University Extension. Clearly then it must, as in England, be kept in the hands of the universities. Their work is one thing. A popular lecture course is another thing altogether, and while there is a demand for that, there are parties in the field—with whom it would be hopeless to try and compete—who are abundantly willing to supply the demand. We must also hasten slowly and be content to foster a taste for study instead of expecting large results in a short time.

As the movement is still in its infancy perhaps the best thing its friends can do is to tell their experience. In this way they may give one another hints. Here, then, is ours, without the slightest reference to the pleasant lectures that were the rage twenty years ago, and which—like the Mechanic's Institute of a previous generation—were expected by some worthy souls

to be pioneers of a millennium of enlightened and regenerated working-men.

1. It is well known that London University was established chiefly with a view to extra-mural students. Candidates for a degree are to this day examined on the work of Pass and Honour courses without attendance upon classes, and it matters nothing to the university whether they have prepared at unchartered schools and colleges or at home. Seven years ago, Queen's resolved to try and better this example. We have in the Province of Ontario public schools, and above these about one hundred and twenty high schools, with twenty thousand pupils who had to pass an entrance examination before being admitted. Five or six thousand leave the high schools annually, of whom rather more than one thousand proceed to universities or professional colleges. This leaves a large number that may be supposed to have some taste and fitness for farther study but not the means of gratifying their taste. To this class of persons we not only offered permission to come up for the regular university examinations that lead to Degrees in Arts if they matriculated, but we also promised assistance by the professors or tutors attached to the different departments of study. For example, in English language and literature a correspondence class was formed, and in connection with it a special course of lectures given, the purpose being to suggest methods of analysis and criticism. This course was voluntary, and a corresponding tutor was appointed to communicate with extra-mural students who might wish to take it. A written copy of each lecture was sent to the student every fortnight, and an exercise prescribed which he had to write and forward to the tutor within the same period. In the other departments of study the weekly exercises of the class were sent to the extra-mural students, or they were required to make themselves familiar with prescribed text-books and to write essays in connection with these and send them in at fixed dates.

The results of this experiment have been all that we expected ; but we did not expect much. We knew the difficulties that this class of students would have to overcome. Some subjects,

such as philosophy, cannot possibly be crammed, and even works like Green's *Prolegomena to Ethics*, Mill's *Utilitarianism*, or Herbert Spencer's *Data of Ethics* are formidable to men who have no opportunity of hearing lectures and asking questions. Other subjects, like botany, geology, zoölogy or physics, can be studied successfully only when there are opportunities for practical work or supervision in a laboratory or dissecting-room. It is not to be wondered at, then, that not more than thirty extra-murals register annually, and that the number shows little tendency to increase. A large proportion fail to pass the annual examinations, and as we have not, in the United States or Canada, the inducements that China offers to successful candidates, most of the failures drop out every year instead of continuing to old age, as they do in a kingdom where success in passing is the entrance to appointments in the public service. A few have already graduated, and others are on the way. These, it must be said, are exceptional men, and imbued with a love of learning for its own sake. Difficulties do not frighten them, and each success stimulates them to further efforts.

This first experiment, which I have thus explained, is of course, so far as it goes, genuine University Extension; but the limited response that has been given to the generous offer made by the university is surely significant. Evidently even the majority of the young men and women who leave our high schools seem glad to get away from the necessity of further study. Goodbye to books, except it may be to novels or literary lemonade of other kinds, is the cry of their hearts, that is, if we are to judge by their intellectual inaction. It should not be so. These presumably well-trained students might be expected to be anxious for more light. They should be pressing in at every open door. They should be full of enthusiasm for learning, and eager for their own full intellectual enfranchisement. But they are not. The fault may be theirs or it may be in our system or in their teachers or in the environment or in the spirit of the age or of a new country. But the fact is that few continue their studies, and that the majority of these have bread and butter inducements. They are teachers, and wish to get better

positions in the profession, and a university degree opens the door to promotion. There is, of course, nothing blameworthy in this, but neither is there anything peculiarly praiseworthy.

2. Our second experiment has just commenced, and it is rather noteworthy that it has risen out of the success of the first. This is a pretty good sign that it is a legitimate development. Anything that comes by evolution is likely to be the right thing at the right time. One or two of our Ottawa graduates, who had obtained their degrees through extra-mural study, valued the education they had received so much that they resolved last summer to form classes on University Extension lines in their own city, the capital of the Dominion, and when they appealed to us for our co-operation we readily consented, and met them more than half-way. So far as I know this is the first case in which a Canadian university undertook to send its professors and tutors outside of its own seat, to do anything like regular university work; though recently the University of New Brunswick, whose seat is in Fredericton, has decided to open courses in St. John, and has published a scheme of lectures in ten different subjects. It has also enlisted in support of the undertaking the best local talent, and the very large number of earnest, intellectual people in St. John is a guarantee of success. Most of the lecturers have no direct communication with the university. The university has, I think, acted wisely in securing the support of outsiders as teachers, and we shall doubtless before long follow this good example.

What measure of success is likely to attend our venture I shall not attempt to predict, but in my opinion the great danger to be avoided here and elsewhere is that which was referred to at the outset of this article. People are so apt to judge of success by mechanical standards that the friends of the movement may offer inducements to attract numbers. Now numbers are just what must be avoided at the first, if anything serious is to be attempted. I happened, quite unexpectedly, to be in Ottawa on the day when the first lecture of the first course was to be given, and learned to my dismay that it was to be in the city hall, that the chancellor of the university, Mr. Sandford Flem-

ing, was to be in the chair, and that his Excellency the Governor-General, and other brilliant people whose countenance is sought when it is desired to make anything fashionable, were to be present. Knowing that Professor Cappon, who was to give the inaugural lecture, sympathized with my own conviction that the movement is likely to end in smoke unless real educational work is attempted, and that such work cannot be done at a public meeting where three-fourths of the people expect to be easily interested and perhaps amused, I was curious to know how he would meet his audience. He proved himself equal to the occasion, and his introductory remarks were so much to the point that they are well worthy of a still larger audience. After courteously acknowledging the presence of Lord Stanley and the distinguished patronage under which the lectures were to be given, he proceeded somewhat as follows:

"But I must tell you frankly that the very public and formal nature of this meeting embarrasses me considerably. I came here to-night prepared to meet a class which I could treat on the easy, familiar, confidential terms in which a university tutor discourses of his subject to a limited and specially prepared audience. In the words of your secretary, Mr. Cowley, I was to give such a lecture as I should give were I commencing work with a class in college. Accordingly, I have come before you to-night without any special preparation for such a meeting as this. The lecture I have brought with me was specially written and designed for an academic audience, that is, an audience prepared to go into a perhaps somewhat dry and scientific analysis of the subject, an audience prepared for the serene delights of research. Perhaps the present audience is all of that character. I do not know, but I am afraid that those who have in their minds the traditional popular lecturer, especially in the field of literature, will be sadly disappointed. I do not profess to do any work of that kind at all. After considerable experience and thought, I do not find that the popular method of lecturing leaves any solid results behind it; much less, at any rate, than those which are aimed at by the University Extension Movement.

"I have seen a good deal of this movement in the Old Country. Some seven or eight years ago I was an extension lecturer in connection with Glasgow University, and I know that my experience was in general the same as that of my colleagues and fellow-workers. We always started off well in a new place. The classes were largely attended, and often numbered from eighty to a hundred hearers. I will not call them students, for a glance at any of the class-rooms would have told the experienced lecturer that two-thirds of the audience came there prepared perhaps to listen attentively, prepared even to read some works by way of assistance, but not at all prepared to study the subject as a student of chemistry or philosophy or language at college is prepared to study his subject; rather expecting to be interested and amused by the lecturer, while remaining themselves in a highly passive state. The result was that we all made our lectures as popular as possible. We drew them up in the traditional popular style: a slight biography of the writer to start with, an interesting anecdote or two, a general survey of his work and its relation to the age, some special criticism, not too systematic or philosophical, and affecting passages for recitation.

"The courses were generally thought to be great successes. I have a very pleasant memory of the complimentary things we, the lecturers and the audiences, used to say of each other at the conclusion. There were pleasant afternoon teas, drives, an occasional dinner, and so forth. It was pleasant, and not unprofitable on either side, but it was not exactly what it was supposed to be,—the extension of university teaching to those outside the university. None of us could say that the teaching had the same solid and thorough quality of that done by the same lecturers within the university walls. None of us could say that any of the extension pupils made anything like the progress, or got anything like the same hold of the subject as the better students in a class within a university.

"Perhaps it was our fault, perhaps we ought to have trusted more to the scientific and philosophic spirit of our classes; but it is hard to treat a subject with scientific precision and detail

before an audience, one-half of whom you are privately convinced expects to remain passive while you amuse and interest them. However that may be, after my term as extension lecturer was over, I resolved never to undertake any more work of that kind, unless it were clearly understood that the work was to be in all essential respects the same as that done within the university, and done in a tutorial *quasi*-Socratic style, which is that of all the best university teachers of to-day, and the only effective method. Then we shall be able to say that our work is truly an extension of the university to those outside, that it has all the essential qualities of university work, and may be taken as an effective substitute by those whom circumstances may not permit to attend the university. And perhaps it may be that in time the universities may recognize it as an equivalent, *pro tanto*, of their own work. In this way we may be able to spread the benefits of real training throughout the length and breadth of the land, and effect a development of the universities in genuine accordance with the spirit of the age."

After these very frank introductory remarks, Professor Cappon proceeded with his first lecture, which—in spite of his warning—the audience generally found extremely interesting, although—as few of them had come prepared to take notes—they have probably forgotten it long ere this. At the close of his lecture Lord Stanley spoke with great good sense along the same lines on which the professor had uttered his warnings, pointing out that the fundamental principle of all education is that a man must educate himself, and that his own reason for coming to the meeting was that he had been assured that genuine educational work was to be attempted. This, he said, could only be done if questions were asked on the subjects of the lectures, notes taken, prescribed books read, and regular examinations held. The following morning I attended the second lecture, which was given in a smaller hall with a blackboard and something of the look of a class-room. The audience, to my great delight, had as a whole a different look from that of the night before. Only between fifty and sixty were present, but almost every one of them was furnished with pencil and note-

book, and, as the professor led them on, occasional questions were put that showed that their own intellects were at work. The lecture and conversation lasted for nearly two hours, and I came away persuaded that genuine work could be done in connection with the University Extension Movement, if only those in charge of it can manage to steer between Scylla and Charybdis.

G. M. GRANT.

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TO A COLLEGE PRESIDENT.

Just for an instant, anger, scorching hot,
Blazed out in look and word ; then died. And you
(Because reply meant littleness and not
Because the taunt flew by) apologized, as few
Could, for that instant's heat. You never taught
From books a lesson half so plain, nor drew
Such potent wisdom from old classic thought.
Each man among us felt he never knew
Till then, how much sheer self-control could mean
Nor yet an insult's true utility.
No other way had we so clearly seen
Your character's supreme nobility.
Nor could aught else so eloquently plead
For full acceptance of your Christian creed.

A. S. BRIDGMAN.

SOUTH AMHERST, Mass.

ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION IN GREEK.

IN TWO PARTS.

II.

THE abundant vocabulary of Greek, as we have seen, is not the only obstacle to the mastery of that language. Our own English has lost so completely the character of an inflected tongue that American boys do not naturally and as a matter of course notice inflections and expect the construction of the sentence to be determined simply by these endings. We find difficulty now, perhaps, in placing ourselves in the situation of the boy to whom all this matter of conjugation and declension is comparatively new. The Latin indeed has broken the ice and prepared the way, but the number of inflectional forms is far smaller in Latin than in Greek, and the former's order of words is perhaps not so free.

In the large number of minute and once unfamiliar details to which the attention of the mind is called in reading Greek, is part of the useful discipline of the study. No department of natural science quickens the mental faculties more thoroughly by the demand to examine every minute point and take nothing for granted.

The teacher needs great patience, then, in drilling his classes to notice (finally, to notice unconsciously) the value of every prefix and suffix. In this matter, great wisdom is required, as well; for such analysis as was demanded twenty years or so ago was often not simply a weariness to the flesh but deadening to the spirit. I know of few good teachers who now follow the method of analysis in the way in which and *to the extent* to which it was pursued by many of the best teachers in 1871. Instruction with regard to word-formation need not be very formal for beginners, but some such instruction is imperatively

needed unless the study of Greek is begun at a more tender age than is common with us.

A great change has come over the study of the classical languages during the last fifteen years. The pendulum had previously swung to its extreme limit in the direction of formalism and analysis. Comparatively little attention was paid in many prominent educational centres to the reading of Greek and Latin. Literature was depressed; Linguistics exalted. Excellent grammars were provided, and teachers gloried in the power possessed (or *said* to be possessed) by their best pupils of reproducing the grammar from their memories. This is now all a matter of the past. Few now dare to do reverence to the pædagogical memory of "Uncle Sam" Taylor of Andover. The pendulum has swung to the other extreme. Now, no student knows his grammar by heart. Indeed, in many schools no regular grammar lessons are assigned, and the scholars are expected to use the grammar only in looking over grammatical references. Many boys have no clear notion of the plan on which the grammar is constructed as a scientific work, and are puzzled when they are called to look up a difficult question for themselves. Boys from schools of good reputation have told me that they had never been required to know the "principal parts" of verbs and important rules of syntax, and that their teachers had declared such study to be opposed to the new improved methods.

A reaction from the time when a class which could read only half a page of the *Anabasis* at a lesson, yet was asked to say (as I heard with my own ears), whether the "change from the stem $\mu\alpha\theta$ to the stem $\mu\alpha\nu\theta$ was phonetic or dynamic,"—a reaction from such linguistic teaching was natural and right. Much has been said wisely and justly about reading Greek at sight. The colleges have introduced an examination in this ability as an important test of the candidate's fitness to enter college. Some colleges may make this the only examination in Greek; all colleges are inclined to lay more stress on this test from year to year. The quality of work in the papers on this subject has steadily improved, showing that more teachers have

acquired skill in imparting this power. We at Yale have been criticised for continuing the old system of "conditions" on a certain number of books of the *Anabasis*, etc. We are not ready, however, to cut ourselves off from a large body of our constituents. If all our students had been trained in half a dozen schools which I could name, I should be ready to test their knowledge of Greek by their ability to read a fair page of Xenophon at sight. But many of those who prove to be our best men, come to us entirely untrained in this respect. They have never tried to read a page of Greek except with vocabulary and grammar at hand. Such men are often confused and dismayed when a new (unseen) passage of Greek is set before them, knowing that their admission to college depends on their correct translation without assistance.

My last remarks have been wholly incidental. They may indicate, however, the importance which I am sure attaches to early and careful training in reading Greek "at sight." Not simply that I would have more special exercises in this matter, shortly before the examination for admission to college. I would have *all* Greek, from the first, read "at sight" so far as possible. Few things in education excite my ire more than the ordinary honest boy's "hammer and tongs" way of preparing his lesson in a Greek author. Sitting down to his work, with grammar and dictionary, he begins with the first line of his advance lesson. At the first unfamiliar word he stops and turns to his lexicon; then he proceeds to the next. If he cannot construe the words of the first sentence so as to make tolerable sense (fitting them together like the parts of a Chinese puzzle), he turns to the notes, in hope of a clue. When the first sentence is completed, that is laid upon the shelf, as it were, and without further reference to that sentence, the next is begun. Not unfrequently, in our entrance examinations in Greek at sight, does a candidate translate each sentence separately, — making nonsense of the whole, by one or two slight and almost natural blunders, through his failure to check the work on one part of the passage by another part.

The student should be taught to read over the whole passage

carefully before beginning his translation; to see what the author is writing about, and what he must mean to say; to use his best common sense and all his previously acquired knowledge in determining the translation of details. I believe heartily in a thorough use of grammar and dictionary. According to my observation, boys use these instruments too little rather than too much. But recourse should be made *first* to one's own store of information. Only when that fails or in order to confirm his own opinion, should reference be made to the commentary or any other help. In a course of connected reading, the student should always begin his work with a review of the pages which have immediately preceded, that he may have the situation more completely in mind.

If a student from the first is trained according to the suggestions which I have just made, he will not be disturbed by an examination "at sight." But as things are now, many boys are not taught how to go to work to get the meaning of a Greek sentence. The old rule is obsolete,—that the pupil should first find the subject of the sentence with its modifiers, etc. Now we all feel that the student should from the beginning of his course be made to apprehend the Greek sentence just as the Greeks themselves apprehended it. To this end the Greek must be read aloud, and the student taught to carry the thought in his mind, as he would an English sentence. This proceeding is difficult principally because the order of words is usually different from our own,—we being bound to a certain arrangement if we would keep our grammatical relations distinct.

Another subject which is dreaded by many candidates for admission to college, is that of Greek composition. I am happy to say that here, too, our Yale examination papers show a distinct progress in the schools of the country during the last ten years. But the fact remains that this subject is dreaded and unpopular. For this unpopularity I see no good reason. Some newspaper writers have copied extracts from utterances of English authorities, on the abuse of Greek composition in the English schools and universities, as if the error in this department in America had been on the side of excess! They thus

show their unfamiliarity with the ordinary work of our classes. In our ordinary work at Yale, as in our entrance examinations, Greek composition is treated simply as one branch of Greek grammar. We study it since we believe that the time thus spent will be more than saved, in the increased power of the student to treat the language as an instrument. This matter is well understood in the learning of modern languages. Not only those who expect to go to France and Germany are drilled in the construction of easy French and German sentences, but also those who desire only to understand what is written in those languages. A mature man, with mind already well-disciplined in such studies, may secure a reading knowledge of Italian without any work in Italian composition, but an ordinary youth gains from his exercise in putting thought from English into French as well as from French into English. For myself, I am confident that the old habit of speaking Latin was of more value than some think. We know, it is true, that the scholastic Latin spoken in our colleges a century ago was not purely Ciceronian (to state the case mildly); and those of us who are familiar with the work of German philological Seminaria, are well aware that one can learn to speak such Latin without very much effort or very exact knowledge of the Latin language as it appears in its literature. But when I went to Germany more than twenty years ago, the mere habit of listening to lectures delivered in Latin, and noting down in the same language the points which were raised and made, gave me a conscious freedom in reading that language beyond anything I had before experienced, although I had read considerably beyond the limits of the regular course. Thus I believe our great-grandfathers of a hundred years ago had freedom in reading masses of Latin literature beyond what most college students of to-day possess. It was partly the old tradition, as well as largely his own philological spirit, which led Woolsey, seventy years ago, to read all of the works of Cicero in the year after his graduation from college. Not all are possessed of Woolsey's spirit, but Latin seemed then hardly so forbidding as now, although far more linguistic knowledge of Latin is at present required for admission to college.

For deep and delicate scholarship, Greek composition is justified, even as it is practised in the English universities. A student has a far better appreciation of the perfect formation of the trimeters of Sophocles when he has tried to make some for himself; and from that Porsonian school of English philology have come many ingenious and convincing emendations of classical texts. The most skilful modern writer of Greek verse is the Regius professor of Greek at Cambridge, Jebb, who is also the most sympathetic interpreter of the Greek tragic poets. I am confident that his practice as a poet has helped him greatly to be the mouthpiece of the poets,—just as he could not make such Greek verses as he does if he had not well studied the great masters.

But here in America, the question is not of composing verses which should vie with those of Pindar or Æschylus. We are satisfied in general if our students compose Greek prose which *will parse*. I am satisfied if my classes write *accurate Greek*; and I wish them to do this not so much because it will help their literary sense, as because I believe it will give them greater power over the language, with the ability to read with more freedom, precision, and appreciation, as well. The student will notice more sharply the arrangement of words in the sentence if he has been drilled somewhat in constructing sentences. He will appreciate more fully an unusual order and the effect of it, if he has been trained to observe what is usual. Still, for the most part Greek composition is treated simply as a branch of grammar.

Why Greek composition should be dreaded and disliked, I cannot see, if its study is begun at the right time and in the right way. Of course, we cannot expect exactly the same ease in turning from English into Greek as from Greek into English. Many of us, doubtless, understand German or French as spoken in ordinary conversation or in a lecture room as readily as English. Few of us, however, could lecture in French or German as readily as in English. We can recognize a man at once, and identify him by a dozen peculiarities or characteristics which we could not describe. Few persons ever translate into a foreign lan-

guage with the same ease and accuracy with which they translate from a foreign language. But after our very beginnings in French and German, we had no difficulty in calling to mind ordinary words and phrases. We were expected to do this. But in Greek, too little as a rule is expected of the beginner, in this direction. His state is too passive. His mind is not sufficiently reproductive. The words are not made to contain sufficient life.

I have no special method of my own to urge upon you. My experience in elementary instruction has been slight, but all that experience tends to show that if students at the very beginning are made to understand Greek when it is pronounced, and to translate orally into English a Greek sentence that is spoken to them, they will be ready with little hesitation to repeat the same or a similar sentence. If the work can be done *viva voce*, no time is lost in writing, and a sentence can be read in a dozen different forms. Once, a number of years ago, taking a small and bright class, I had them recite the *Anabasis* in this way, as I read the Greek aloud. I often changed the form of the Greek, to hold their attention and make sure that the lesson was not committed mechanically. When this exercise was over, I read to the class a free translation of the passage on which we had been engaged, and had it returned to Greek, and in several different forms. This last is the exercise to which I call your particular attention at this time.

The great authority for this practice of *retroversion* (after the younger Pliny) is the honored and successful teacher of Lady Jane Grey and Queen Elizabeth, the friend of Johannes Sturm and Sir John Cheke,—I mean, of course, Roger Ascham. If any of you are not acquainted with his *Schoolmaster*, I am sure you will be grateful to me for calling your attention to it; and those of you who are familiar with the work will certainly consent to listen once more to Ascham's teaching on this subject. After a brief introduction on *paraphrasis* and *metaphrasis*, in the second book of his *Schoolmaster*, Ascham quotes from Pliny, and continues: "You perceive how Pliny teacheth that by this exercise of double translating is learned easily, sensibly, by

little and little, not only all the hard congruities of grammar, the choice of aptest words, the right framing of words and sentences, comeliness of figure and forms fit for every matter and proper for every tongue; but that which is greater also, in marking daily and following diligently thus the steps of the best authors, like invention of arguments, like order in disposition, like utterance in elocution is easily gathered up; whereby your scholar shall be brought not only to like eloquence, but also all true understanding and right judgment both for writing and speaking." (You see that Ascham claims more for the method than even I have done. But he proceeds :) "And by these authorities and reasons am I moved to think this way of double translating, either only or chiefly, to be fittest for the speedy and perfect attainment of any tongue." And after citing Dion Chrysostom, he says: "And a better and nearer example herein may be our most noble Queen Elizabeth, who never took yet Greek nor Latin grammar in her hand, after the first declining of a noun and a verb; but only by this double translating of Demosthenes and Isocrates daily without missing every forenoon, and likewise some part of Tully every afternoon, for the space of a year or two, hath attained to such a perfect understanding of both the tongues, and to such a ready utterance of the Latin, and that with such a judgment, as there be few in number in both the universities, or elsewhere in England, that be comparable with her majesty."

Ascham was proud of his royal pupil with good reason, and elsewhere thus refers to the Queen's diligence: "It is to your shame (I speak to you all, you young gentlemen of England) that one maid should go beyond you all in excellency of learning and knowledge of divers tongues. Point forth six of the best given gentlemen of this court, and all they together show not so much good will, spend not so much time, bestow not so many hours daily, orderly, and constantly, for the increase of learning and knowledge, as doth the Queen's Majesty herself. Yea, I believe that beside her perfect readiness in Latin, Italian, French, and Spanish, she readeth here now at Windsor more Greek every day, than some prebendary of this church doth read Latin in a whole week."

Few of us have such pupils as Queen Elizabeth, and her attainments doubtless were not depreciated by her teacher. But we can all strive to show the spirit of Roger Ascham. And certainly as for this practice of "double-translating" or retroversion, I know of nothing which gives greater freedom in dealing both with inflections and with constructions of syntax.

I said a few moments ago that the most important aim of the elementary instruction in Greek was to give the ability to read the language rapidly and with precision. Perhaps I should in fairness say a word as to my position in regard to instruction in Greek antiquities. In general, I believe that this subject should be taken up only after the student has acquired considerable ease in translating. I assume that the historical situation will be made plain to readers of the *Anabasis*, with explanations and illustrations of the archæological questions which naturally arise. I believe, however, that the *Anabasis* of Xenophon and the first books of Homer should not be used as a *text* for lessons in archæology, any more than as a text for lessons in etymology and general linguistics, — if the student is going into college. We college instructors feel strongly (as I believe) that when all the time of the Greek course is considered, the student gains most if his early years are devoted to acquiring a vocabulary (the larger the better) and fixing the inflections and the principles of syntax, — *i.e.* learning to read. If a large part of the early years is devoted to studies in Homeric life and the like, the youth only with great difficulty and much friction is brought back to the drudgery of the study of grammatical forms and rules, which must come at some time, if the study of Greek is to be a useful discipline. If the boy is not to enter college, however, he would enjoy, and might profit from, more exercise in the broader fields of classical philology.

This whole subject is too large to be exhausted easily. I could not hope to say all that should be said, and I clearly recognize the fact that on some of the points which I have raised many of you can speak with greater authority, from more experience, than I. I must be satisfied with calling your attention to some things as they appear to the view of a teacher of

Greek in college, — urging that *from the outset* the pupil be led to a systematic course of reviews; that he be trained to pronounce the Greek freely, until the alphabet no longer is conscientiously before his mind, and until his ear is familiar with the most important words; that he be taught to read at sight; and that he be trained in the practice of double-translation or retroversion. If all of our students at Yale had been thus trained from the beginning of their Greek course, without increased expenditure of time, the study of Greek would be not only more useful but more popular. Much of the ability to read with freedom and precision which we all take as our chief aim (certainly until after the beginning of Freshman year) can never be gained, unless the foundations are laid by such discipline as I have roughly sketched. So far as this course is pursued, the break between the work of the preparatory schools and that of the colleges is less perplexing to the teacher, and less injurious to the scholar.

T. D. SEYMOUR.

YALE COLLEGE.

THE TEACHING OF FRENCH AND GERMAN IN OUR PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

BY "our" schools I mean those of Massachusetts; and when I say "high schools," I am thinking especially of institutions that are not engaged in preparing pupils for college entrance examinations. Let us take it for granted, further, that a foreign language occupies, in the average high school course, some three hours a week for three years. It is obvious enough that we cannot do everything in this time: we are obliged to devote ourselves particularly to some one part of the subject, and our choice must be determined, in the first place, by our possibilities, and, next, by the purpose we have in mind. My intention is to examine briefly the five chief branches of modern language study, with a view to ascertaining which of them we can teach, and which of these latter we can most profitably pursue. I shall consider the five topics in the following order: speaking, writing, grammar, translation, reading.

First comes speaking. I am often asked: "Can we teach pupils to talk French and German?" Let us see. We know that the ability to use a language for the purpose of communicating ideas can be gained only through long-continued practice. The ear, the vocal organs, the memory, the reasoning powers, the will, must all receive a special and thorough training. Hearing others speak will not do: we must speak ourselves. This is a case, if there ever was one, where the motto *fit fabriendo faber* exactly hits the nail on the head. Now let us suppose that a class of twenty-five pupils, neglecting all else, spends its whole time in "conversation"; let us say that each recitation period consists of fifty minutes, and that the class recites three times a week; let us suppose, also, for the sake of the argument, that the instructor talks only half of the time. What is the result? If the hours are equitably divided, every pupil speaks for three minutes a week, or two hours yearly, or a

quarter of a day during his entire public school career. When we reflect that it takes us, with fully an hour's exercise *per diem*, ten or fifteen years to master our native tongue, we can perhaps estimate the amount of skill that is to be produced by six hours' practice scattered over a term of three years. It will then be unnecessary to discuss the question whether or not the ability to speak French or German is a desirable and proper object for a public school course. By all this I do not, in the least, intend to discourage the use of a foreign language in the class-room: my only purpose is to show that we cannot make speaking our chief aim, and that we must accept this fact once for all, and shape our methods accordingly. If, however, so-called "conversation" ought not to be regarded as an end in itself, it is certainly a most valuable auxiliary. There are at least four reasons why we should cultivate it: in the first place, it satisfies a frequently expressed desire on the part of the public, and as the public supports the schools, its wishes should be heeded; secondly, classes do not correctly appreciate what they read (especially if their text is either metrical in form or colloquial in style) unless they know how it sounds; thirdly, the actual use of the foreign tongue invariably interests the pupils, giving them a sense of mastery that nothing else can bring; and, lastly, exercises of this kind stimulate the teacher to more extended study and greater mental activity. I should say, therefore, to those instructors who have a practical command of the language they teach: "Use it as much as possible in school, but do not waste time on it. If you have something to tell the class, say it in the foreign tongue whenever you think you will be understood without long explanation or tiresome repetitions. Encourage the scholars to express themselves in the same language as soon and as often as they can. Always, and particularly at the outset, insist on the best pronunciation attainable. Begin, as a rule, with simple and not too numerous French or German sentences containing no new words, and decrease, month by month, the proportion of English spoken. You will find that during the last year the greater part of your instruction can be imparted in the language you are studying."

Teachers who cannot speak German or French I should earnestly advise to learn to do so as quickly as possible, but not to experiment on the class until they have acquired a fair degree of fluency and correctness.

We now come to our second subject, writing. It might naturally occur to us that if we devoted most of our energies to composition, we could, perhaps, give our scholars a kind of training admirably adapted to the development of their reasoning faculties, and, at the same time, fix in their minds the most important facts of the language. Of course, however, we do not wish to make writing our specialty unless we can teach pupils to write well; otherwise we shall have too little to show for our three years' labor. Now, before students can learn to write properly, they must have collected the materials: they should have read a large amount of French or German, and they must have gained a clear and complete knowledge of the necessary points of grammar. The former of these requirements is often neglected by teachers, but it is, in my opinion, the more important of the two. All our talking and writing of foreign tongues, so far as it is correct, is almost wholly a matter of imitation: we are never sure that any expression we may wish to use is right, unless we have seen or heard it before; and generally we must meet with a word or phrase many times, and examine it from several points of view, before we feel that we are on speaking terms with it. I think it would be no exaggeration to say that if we spent all our three years on translation and grammar, our best pupils would, at the end of that time, be just in proper condition to begin serious work in composition. Writing must, therefore, like speaking, be considered, in our high school course, as a side issue. It is, nevertheless, an indispensable auxiliary to grammar study, and, if intelligently conducted, a wonderful aid to reading and translation.

At first sight it would seem that grammar, our third topic, might well be made the principal theme of our modern language curriculum. If carefully pursued throughout the course, with enough reading and writing to illustrate its principles, it would furnish a good instrument for training the intelligence, and pro-

vide a subject that ought to be thoroughly learned, by diligent and fairly able scholars, in three years. "By diligent and fairly able scholars"—alas! this qualifying phrase opens our eyes to a weakness in the argument. For it is a fact, shown not by ratiocination, but by experience, that our pupils, when obliged to study grammar, are neither "diligent" nor "fairly able": they are, generally speaking, stupid and indolent beyond all endurance. Why? Simply because they dislike it. However pleasing grammar may appear to the philologist, who sees it in perspective, the schoolboy, for whom it is merely a collection of paradigms, formulas, and exceptions, finds it intolerably dry; and the schoolboy cannot do his best work unless he is interested. Here and there an instructor may exist sufficiently enthusiastic and discriminating to make the subject attractive; but I fear that most of our teachers are scarcely more fond of the science, for its own sake, than are the pupils themselves. Yet we must have some grammar; else we can expect no accurate knowledge of the language. There seems to be but one way out of the dilemma: to teach only the essentials; to administer this necessary amount in small and well-graded doses, alternating with lessons of a different character; and to emphasize its utility and relieve its dullness by means of close association with interesting composition work and agreeable reading matter.

Translation and reading, as I use the terms, are not quite the same thing. The chief objects of the former are mental discipline and training in English; the main purpose of the latter is general culture, to be attained through the intelligent perusal of the greatest possible number of good foreign books. Yet the two cannot be entirely separated: reading must begin by translation; and it is equally true that the thoughtful translation of literary masterpieces cannot fail to refine the taste. In either case we must be sure to select works that are excellent in themselves, and can be readily appreciated by the scholars; we should study with the same care the differences of idiom between the two languages; and, whatever may be our aim, we ought never to be satisfied with inaccurate or awkward Eng-

lish versions. In these respects the two methods are identical. It is, in fact, rather two ideals that we have to distinguish. We may, on the one hand, direct all our labors toward the development of the reason : in this case we shall have a course consisting of carefully corrected translation, a maximum of grammar and composition, and comparatively little speaking. If, on the other hand, the end we have in view is the broadening of the mind and the cultivation of the taste, we shall have, perhaps, more translation and conversation and somewhat less writing and grammar ; and we shall strive to train our pupils in such a manner that they can, before the end of the three years, absorb thought directly through the foreign medium, without the interposition of English. Both of these objects — mental discipline and general culture — are so desirable that no complete course can wholly neglect either of them ; and if lack of time compels us partially to sacrifice one to the other, we may not find the choice easy. The following considerations seem to me to be of weight. In our public schools most of the work appears to be calculated to fit young persons rather to meet the rude exigencies of life than to enjoy its good things : this is doubtless right ; but the strictly practical side of education is not the only one that deserves attention. When foreigners criticise us Americans, they say we are intelligent, quick, inventive, but lacking in refinement and artistic taste ; and I think there is much truth in their judgment. Now, refinement and taste are necessary factors of civilization ; we cannot afford to pass by any opportunity to cultivate them ; and how can they be more readily developed than by the study of literature ? We already have a somewhat meagre course of reading in English ; but this, even if it were far more extended, could never be half so effective in overthrowing prejudices, suggesting ideas, opening new vistas, and forming correct standards, as is the intercourse with great minds of other countries. I am, therefore, inclined to say that a French or German course does not fulfil its true mission until it affords pupils at least an introduction to the best literature of the language they are learning.

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SHORTENING AND ENRICHING THE GRAMMAR-SCHOOL COURSE.¹

THE subject assigned to me is shortening and enriching the grammar-school course.

I. We may properly use the term shortening in either of two senses. In the first place, the number of grades may be reduced from ten to nine or from nine to eight, so that the combined primary and grammar-school periods shall end at fourteen or thirteen; or secondly, the studies of the present course may be reduced in volume or in variety, or in both, so that there shall be room for the introduction of new subjects. I observe that both kinds of shortening have actually been begun in various towns and cities, and I believe that both are desirable, if not universally, at least in most localities. The argument for the first kind of shortening is a compact and convincing one;—averaging the rates of progress of bright children with those of dull children being the great curse of a graded school, it is safer to make the regular programme for eight grades, and lengthen it for the exceptionally slow pupils, than to make it for ten grades and shorten it for the exceptionally quick. In other words, since holding back the capable children is a much greater educational injustice than hurrying the incapable, the programme should be so constructed as to give all possible chances of avoiding the greater evil. Without altering the nominal length of the programme in years, a great shortening of the course can be effected for part of the children simply by permitting the capable ones to do two years' work in one. I heard a grammar-school master testifying a few days ago in a teachers' meeting that nearly one-quarter of the pupils in his school (which numbers about 650 children) were success-

¹ Read before the Department of Superintendence (Nat. Educ. Assoc.) at Brooklyn, February 16, 1892.

fully accomplishing this double task. Such a statement opens a cheerful vista for one who desires to see the grammar-school course both shortened and enriched.

With no more words about the first kind of shortening, I turn to the second kind; namely, the desirable reductions in the volume and variety of the present studies. The first great reduction should, I believe, be made in arithmetic. I find that it is very common in programmes of the grades to allot to arithmetic from one-eighth to one-sixth of the whole school time for nine or ten years. In many towns and cities two arithmetics are used during these years; a small one of perhaps one hundred pages, followed by a larger one of two or three hundred pages. Now the small book ordinarily contains all the arithmetic that anybody needs to know; indeed, much more than most of us ever use. Before a body of experts like this it were superfluous to enlarge on this proposition. On grounds of utility, geometry and physics have stronger claims than any part of arithmetic beyond the elements; and for mental training they are also to be preferred. By the contraction of arithmetic, room is made for algebra and geometry. In a few schools these subjects have already been introduced, with or without mention in the official programmes, and they have proved to be interesting and intelligible to American children of from eleven to thirteen years of age, just as they are to European children. Moreover, the attainments of the pupils in arithmetic are not diminished by the introduction of the new studies, but rather increased. The algebraic way of solving a problem is often more intelligible than the arithmetical, and mensuration is easier when founded on a good knowledge of elementary geometry than it is in the lack of that foundation. The three subjects together are vastly more interesting than arithmetic alone pursued through nine consecutive years. Secondly, language studies, including reading, writing, spelling, grammar, and literature, occupy from one-third to two-fifths of most grade programmes. There is ample room here for the introduction of the optional study of a foreign language, ancient or modern, at the fourth or fifth grade. Here it is to be observed that

nothing will be lost to English by the introduction of a foreign language. In many schools the subject of grammar still fills too large a place on the programme, although great improvement has taken place in the treatment of this abstruse subject which is so unsuitable for children. In the *Beginner's Latin Book* by Messrs. Collar and Daniell, I noticed five years ago an excellent description of the amount of knowledge of English grammar needed by a pupil of ten or twelve years of age about to begin Latin. Of course, the pupil who is not to begin Latin needs no more. All the grammar which the learner needed to know before beginning Latin was "the names and functions of the parts of speech in English, and the meanings of the common grammatical terms, such as subject and predicate, case, tense, voice, declension, conjunction," etc. Manuals have now been prepared in considerable variety for imparting this limited amount of grammatical information by examples and practice rather than by rules and precepts; so that the greater part of the time formerly spent on English grammar can now be saved for more profitable uses. Thirdly, geography is now taught from books and flat atlases chiefly as a memory study, and much time is given to committing to memory masses of facts which cannot be retained, and which are of little value if retained. By grouping physical geography with natural history, and political geography with history, and by providing proper apparatus for teaching geography, time can be saved, and yet a place made for much new and interesting geographical instruction. Fourthly, a small saving of time can be made for useful subjects by striking out the book-keeping which in many towns and cities is found in the last grade. This subject is doubtless included in the grammar-school programme, because it is supposed to be of practical value; but I believe it to be the most useless subject in the entire programme; for the reason that the book-keeping taught is a kind of book-keeping never found in any real business establishment. Every large business has in these days its own forms of accounting and book-keeping, which are, for the most part, peculiar to itself. Almost every large firm or corporation has its own method, with printed head-

ings, schedules, bill-heads, invoices, and duplicating order-books, adapted to its own business, and intended to simplify its accounts and reduce to lowest terms the amount of writing necessary to keep them. What a boy or girl can learn at school which will be useful in after-life in keeping books or accounts for any real business is a good handwriting, and accuracy in adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing small numbers. It is a positive injury to a boy to give him the impression that he knows something about book-keeping, when he has only learned an unreal system which he will never find used in any actual business. At best, book-keeping is not a science, but only an art based on conventions. As trade and industry have been differentiated in the modern world, book-keeping has been differentiated also, and it is, of course, impossible to teach in school the infinite diversities of practice.

II. I have thus indicated in the briefest manner the reductions which may be conveniently made in some of the present subjects in order to effect a shortening of the present grammar-school programme. My next topic is diversifying and enriching it. The most complete statement of the new subjects proposed for the grammar-school programme is that made by the Association of Colleges in New England at their meeting at Brown University last November. That Association then invited the attention of the public to certain changes in the grammar-school programme which it recommended for gradual adoption. These changes are five in number :

The first is the introduction of elementary natural history into the earlier years of the programme, to be taught by demonstrations and practical exercises rather than from books. The term natural history was doubtless intended to include botany, zoölogy, geology, and physical geography. Some room for these subjects is already made in most grammar-school programmes, and the recommendation of the Association refers as much to methods of teaching as to time allotted to the subject. The Association recommends that the teaching be demonstrative, and that adequate apparatus be provided for teaching these subjects. There is a lamentable lack of the proper apparatus

for teaching geography in the public schools. Indeed, in many schools there is no proper apparatus for teaching geography, or any other natural history subject, to young children. Natural science apparatus has been provided in some exceptional high schools; but as a rule grammar schools are still destitute in this important respect.

The second recommendation is the introduction of elementary physics into the later years of the programme, to be taught by the laboratory method, and to include exact weighing and measuring by the pupils themselves.

The third and fourth recommendations cover the introduction of algebra and geometry at the age of twelve or thirteen.

The fifth is the offering of opportunity to study French or German or Latin, or any two of these languages, from and after the age of ten.

III. Such are in brief the proposals for shortening and enriching the grammar-school course. I want to use the rest of the time allotted to me in discussing the objections to these various changes.

The first objection I take up is the objection to a reduction in the time devoted to arithmetic. Many teachers are shocked at the bare idea of reducing the time given to arithmetic, because they believe that arithmetic affords a peculiarly valuable training, first, in reasoning, and secondly, in precision of thought and accuracy of work. They perceive that the greater part of the school programme calls only for memorizing power, and they think that arithmetic develops reasoning power. The fact is, however, that mathematical reasoning is a peculiar form of logic, which has very little application to common life, and no application at all in those great fields of human activity where perfect demonstration is not to be obtained. As a rule, neither the biological nor the moral sciences can make use of mathematical reasoning. Moreover, so far as mathematical reasoning is itself concerned, variety of subject is very useful to the pupils. The substitution of algebra and geometry for part of the arithmetic, is a clear gain to the pupil so far as acquaintance with the logic of mathematics goes. Again, prac-

tice in thinking with accuracy, and working with demonstrable precision can be obtained in algebra, geometry, and physics just as well as in arithmetic. It is quite unnecessary to adhere to the lowest and least interesting of these exact subjects, in order to secure adequate practice in precision of thought and work.

The second objection is that there are children in the grammar schools who are incapable of pursuing these new subjects. Assuming that this allegation is true of some children, I have to remark, first, that we shall not know till we have tried what proportion of children are incapable of pursuing algebra, geometry, physics, and some foreign language by the time they are fourteen years of age. It is a curious fact that we Americans habitually underestimate the capacity of pupils at almost every stage of education, from the primary school through the university; the expectation of attainment for the American child, or for the American college student, is much lower than the expectation of attainment for the European. This error has been very grave in its effects on American education, all along the line from the primary school through the university, and till within twenty years the effects were nowhere worse than at the college grade. It seems to me probable that the proportion of grammar-school children incapable of pursuing geometry, algebra, and a foreign language would turn out to be much smaller than we now imagine; but though this proportion should be large, it would not justify the exclusion of all the capable children from opportunities which they could profit by. At the worst, this objection can only go to show that it will be necessary to adopt in the grammar schools a flexible instead of a rigid system—some selection or choice of studies instead of a uniform requirement. Those children who are competent to study a foreign language should certainly have the opportunity of doing so at the proper age, that is, not later than ten or eleven years; and those who are competent to begin geometry at twelve and algebra at thirteen should have the chance. If experience shall prove that a considerable proportion of grammar-school children are incapable of pursuing the higher studies,

that fact will only show that the selection of appropriate studies for children by their teachers should be adopted as a policy by the public grammar school. To discriminate between pupils of different capacity, to select the competent for suitable instruction, and to advance each pupil with appropriate rapidity, will ultimately become, I believe, the most important functions of the public-school administrator, — those functions in which he or she will be most serviceable to families and to the state.

Another objection to the changes proposed often takes this form — they are said to be aristocratic in tendency. The democratic theory, it is said, implies equality among the children, uniformity of programme, uniform tests for promotion, and no divisions in the same schoolroom according to capacity or merit. I need not say to this audience that these conceptions of true democracy in schools are fallacious and ruinous. Democratic society does not undertake to fly in the face of nature by asserting that all children are equal in capacity, or that all children are alike and should be treated alike. Everybody knows that children are infinitely diverse; that children in the same family even are apt to be very different in disposition, temperament, and mental power. Every child is a unique personality. It follows, of course, that uniform programmes and uniform methods of instruction, applied simultaneously to large numbers of children, must be unwise and injurious, — an evil always to be struggled against and reformed, so far as the material resources of democratic society will permit. It is for the interest of society, as well as of the individual, that every individual child's peculiar gifts and powers should be developed and trained to the highest degree. Hence, in the public schools of a democracy the aim should be to give the utmost possible amount of individual instruction, to grade according to capacity just as far as the number of teachers and their strength and skill will permit, and to promote pupils not by battalions, but in the most irregular and individual way possible. A few days ago, I heard an assistant superintendent in an important city declare that many grammar-school teachers in his city objected to any division among the fifty or more pupils in each room; any division, that is, accord-

ing to the attainments and powers of the individual pupils. They wanted all the pupils in a given room to be in one grade, to move together like soldiers on parade, and to arrive at examination-day having all performed precisely the same tasks, and made the same progress in the same subjects. If that were a true portrait of the city graded school, it would be safe to predict that the urban public school would before long become nothing but a charity school for the children of the dependent classes. Intelligent Americans will not subject their children to such a discipline, when they once understand what it means. The country district school, in which among forty or fifty pupils there are always ten or a dozen distinct classes at different stages and advancing at different rates of progress, would remain as the only promising type of the free school. Not only is it no serious objection to the new proposals that they must diminish uniformity in schools,—it is their strongest recommendation.

So far from the changes proposed being of aristocratic tendency, they are really essential to a truly democratic school system; for they must be adopted and carried into effect, before the children of the poor can obtain equal access with the children of the rich to the best education they are capable of, whatever the grade of that education may be. Accessibility of appropriate opportunity is the essence of democratic society; not equality of gifts, attainments, or powers, for that equality is unnatural and impossible; not abundance of inappropriate opportunities, for such abundance is of no avail; but accessibility of such appropriate opportunities as the individual can utilize for his own benefit and that of society. The American grammar-school programme now actually prevents an intelligent child from beginning the study of a foreign tongue at the right age. We all know that that age is very early, long before the high-school period. It prevents him from beginning the study of algebra and geometry at the right age. It makes it impossible for him to get a chance at the right kind of study of natural science. If a boy is not to go to the high school, he loses that chance forever under our present system. If he is going to the high school, he does not get the chance till much too late. The

poor boy in the United States should have as good a chance as the child of a rich man to obtain the best school training which his character and powers fit him to receive. Is not that a fair statement of what democratic society may reasonably aim at, and seek to effect through its own grammar schools? Yet the existing grammar-school programme actually prevents the poor boy from getting that chance. The rich man can obtain for his children a suitably varied course of instruction, with much individual teaching, in a private or endowed school; but the immense majority of American children are confined to the limited, uniform, machine programme of the graded grammar school. A democratic society was never more misled as to its own interest than in supposing such a programme to be for the interest of the masses. The grades for pupils from six to fifteen years of age are an obstruction to the rise, through democratic society, of the children who ought to rise. Uniformity is the curse of American schools. That any school or college has a uniform product should be regarded as a demonstration of inferiority—of incapacity to meet the legitimate demands of a social order whose fundamental principle is that every career should be open to talent. Selection of studies for the individual, instruction addressed to the individual, irregular promotion, grading by natural capacity and rapidity of attainment, and diversity of product as regards age and acquisitions must come to characterize the American public school, if it is to answer the purposes of a democratic society.

Fourth: It is further alleged that the changes proposed are chiefly for the advantage of the well-to-do children whose education is to be carried beyond the grammar school to the high school, and possibly to the college above the high school. They are indeed for the interest of this class of children; but they are much more for the interest of the children who are not going to the high school, and for whom therefore the grammar school is to provide all the systematic education they will ever receive. The Association of Colleges in New England distinctly says that it makes its recommendations in the interest of the public school system as a whole; "but most of them

are offered more particularly in the interest of those children whose education is not to be continued beyond the grammar school." Take, for example, the subject of geometry. It has many and very important applications in the arts and trades. Every mechanic needs some knowledge of it. Its applications are as important as those of arithmetic, if we except the very simplest and commonest arithmetical operations. That the great mass of American children should leave school without ever having touched this subject, except perhaps in arithmetic under the head of mensuration, is a grave public misfortune. To introduce variety into the grammar-school programme is in itself likely to profit the children who are never to go to school after they are fourteen years of age even more than the children who are. A child who is dull in one subject may be bright in a different subject. Thus, a child who has no gift in language may be keen and quick in natural history studies. A child who has no taste for arithmetic may prove unusually strong in geometry. One whose mind is not easily moved through purely mental exercises may be intellectually developed through drawing and manual training. In college we are extremely familiar with these diversities, and the elective system is now giving in most American colleges free play for the profitable exhibition and cultivation of these diverse gifts. In a similar manner the grammar school will be better for even the dull and slow children, if its studies are made more various and its whole system more flexible.

A fifth objection to the introduction of new subjects is that children are already overworked in school. In an address which I gave rather more than a year ago, I pointed out that there are two effective mechanical precautions against the ill effects attributed to overwork at school—precautions which it is delightful to see are more and more adopted. They are good ventilation, and the systematic use of light gymnastics at regular intervals during school hours. School time ought to be the best managed of all the day from a sanitary point of view, excepting those hours which the children pass out of doors. If the schoolroom were invariably healthier in every respect

than the average home, we should hear less about overwork at school. There is, however, a third precaution against overwork which is quite as important as either of those already mentioned,—it is making the school work interesting to the children. Four years ago I asked the attention of this department of the National Educational Association to the depressing effect which lack of interest and conscious progress in school work has upon children. To introduce new and higher subjects into the school programme is not necessarily to increase the strain upon the child. If this measure increases the interest and attractiveness of the work and the sense of achievement, it will diminish weariness and the risk of hurtful strain.

Lastly, there is an apprehension lest the introduction of the new subjects recommended should increase existing difficulties with regard to promotion. Parents are sensitive about the promotion of their children. They want the dull ones and the bright to be promoted at the same rate. Their sympathies are quite as apt to be with the slow children as with the quick. I believe that this practical difficulty should be met in part by the abandonment of uniform attainment, or of a standard of required knowledge, as ground of promotion. In Harvard College, where there is no such thing as a uniform programme of study for all students, and where, indeed, there is small chance that any two students out of fourteen hundred and fifty will pursue the same course of studies during their four years of residence, we have long since abandoned uniform attainment as ground of promotion from one class to another. The sole ground of promotion is reasonable fidelity. I venture to believe that this is the true ground of promotion in grammar schools as well, and that, by the sole use of this principle in promoting the difficulty now under consideration would be much alleviated, if not done away with. The right time for advancing a child to the study of a new subject is the first moment he is capable of comprehending it. All our divisions of the total school period into years, and into primary, grammar, and high schools, are artificial, and in most cases hurtful or hindering to the individual. The whole school life should be one unbroken flow from one

fresh interest and one new delight to another, and the rate of that flow ought to be different for each different child. Economical school administration inevitably interferes somewhat with the desirable continuity and variety of motion; but the most skilful and wisest administration is that which interferes least.

On reviewing the progress of this reform since I had the honor of discussing the question, "Can School Programmes be shortened and enriched," before this Department of Superintendence four years ago, I see many evidences that a great and beneficent change in public-school programmes is rapidly advancing. The best evidence is to be found in the keen interest which superintendents and teachers take in the discussion of the subject. Through them the proposed improvements will be wrought out in detail; their influence will be successfully exerted on parents, committees, and the public press; and their reward will be, first, the daily sight of happier and better-trained children, and secondly, the elevation of their own profession.

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EDITORIAL.

THE publication of the Junior appointments at Yale College for the present year reveals a significant fact. The list gives the names of the first twenty men in order of their rank in scholarship together with mention of the schools from which they entered college. From this it appears that twelve of these successful students were prepared for college in public high schools, six in academies and similar institutions, and two by private instructors. The Hartford High School sent one-fourth of the twenty, including the first and the last on the list. It is noticeable that the three great endowed schools which supply the largest contribution to Yale's Freshman class are not represented. *The New York Times* in commenting on the above adds the fact that three times recently the valedictory at Yale has been taken by a student whose preparation was secured at the New Haven High School.

Observations based on a single set of appointments do not warrant sweeping conclusions, it is true; but this showing makes it clear that the public high schools contributory to Yale prepare their graduates quite as well for the scholastic competitions of college life as do the institutions of any other type. The same is probably true respecting the feeders of other colleges in the North and East; for it is a matter of common observation that the public high schools of our cities are among the best manned and equipped of our secondary schools. But preparation for college is but a minor part of high school work, though possibly it is the part most thoroughly done. The great mass of high school graduates, including many of the ablest minds, do not now avail themselves of college privileges. This is a misfortune to the colleges and to the community. Let us hope that the time may soon come when the gap between the ordinary high school and the college may be successfully bridged.

The present state of the higher education of young women fails to confirm the fears of some of its early critics, who maintained that by it woman would be educated out of her sphere. The motive of the throngs who swarm to the colleges open to girls is found to be precisely the same that inspires young men, — a desire to fit themselves better for the ordinary demands and duties of life. The *alumnæ* of these colleges do not seem to regard themselves as divinely commissioned to assume the tasks previously devolving on their brothers, but quietly set about doing whatever their hands find to do. Collegiate education for women very plainly will work no upheaval in society save that peaceful and welcome revolution which results from the uplifting of the ideals of any considerable portion of a community. There are grave problems yet to be solved concerning the *How* and the *Where*. The co-educational college, the separate college, the "annex," — no one can yet tell which is to be the norm in the day of the "survival of the fittest." But that all educational privileges from the kindergarten to the university will eventually be open as freely to women as to men, is no longer doubted, or dreaded, by intelligent observers.

Trustees of educational foundations often have occasion to regret that the wisdom and foresight of would-be benefactors are not always co-equal with their good intentions. The embarrassment sometimes resulting from conditions attached to gifts and bequests is well illustrated by the recent correspondence between the Harvard Faculty and Corporation concerning the *Dudleian Lectures*.

Chief Justice Dudley at his death bequeathed to Harvard College a fund for the establishment of a series of four lectures, of which the third had for its subject "The Detecting and Convicting and Exposing of the Idolatry of the Romish Church, their Tyranny, Usurpation, Damnable Baseness, Fatal Errors, Abominable Superstitions, and other Crying Wickedness in High Places." Last May fifty-eight members of the Harvard Faculty petitioned for the omission of this lecture, expressing the opinion that the surrender of the whole trust would be a

slight evil compared with the continuance of the lecture. The Corporation referred the matter to Judge Endicott, one of its members. Last October he rendered his report, and the Corporation answered the petitioners with a declination to take the steps proposed either in whole or in part. The reply avers that "the language used by the Chief Justice, who was a just and sincere man, is language characteristic of the time when animosities among religious sects were bitter and intense, and that if he were to draw this clause to-day it would be couched in different terms and breathe a very different spirit," which few will doubt. The opinion is further expressed that "at the present time this subject should be, and doubtless will be, treated historically," and that "the opportunity may well be taken in delivering this third lecture to soothe and allay the animosities and bitterness of the past, and to deal with these questions in a broad, scholarly, and magnanimous spirit." The petitioners, on receiving this reply, reiterated their conviction that the revival and continuance of a lecture inconsistent with the unsectarian policy of the university must be prejudicial, but announced that while they cannot think the method proposed by the Corporation one that really carries out the purpose of the founder of the lectures, they see no utility in pressing views which have no likelihood of obtaining the concurrence of the governing body.

On the question of the undesirability of such a lecture at Harvard as the subject implies, there can scarcely be a division of opinion; but on the wisdom of this mode of administering the trust, opinion naturally will divide. Strict constructionists will agree with the Faculty, while those accustomed to regard the spirit more highly than the letter of the law may sympathize with the action of the Corporation. Whether it is good law or not, it is good sense to consider the evident primary motive of the testator. That appears to have been the furtherance of the interests of the Protestant faith. It is clear that at the present day such dispassioned historical treatment of the Roman Catholic Church as the Corporation alludes to will accomplish Judge Dudley's purpose far better than the defamatory address which

seemed to him so admirable a means to his end. The Corporation appears, therefore, to have reached a sound conclusion. Its action, moreover, is in line with the principle on which the British Parliament proceeded in the reform of the colleges at Cambridge and Oxford. This principle, as stated recently by *The Nation*, is "that only a founder's main object shall be respected for more than fifty years after the date of the foundation,—a limit certainly beyond the foresight of any ordinary man."

Advices from London bring cumulative evidence that the new Albert University is not to gain its charter without a struggle. The objections of certain vested interests were mentioned by our English correspondent last month, and by the *Pedagogical Seminary* for December. But besides the University Extension Society, which feels itself entitled to a fuller recognition, the University of London, which objects to the giving of degrees to students who have not passed *all* their time in residence at the new university, and the College of Physicians and Surgeons, which wishes to retain control of the medical Faculty, a new company of opponents has sprung up. King's College, one of the petitioning bodies, is disliked in some quarters because of its connection with the Established Church, and on the 18th of January a meeting was held at the Memorial Hall in Farringdon Street to protest against what is termed a virtual contravention of the Tests Repeal Act. Evidently the hands of the dial will not be allowed to go backward. The charter, if it is secured, will bear the seal of the present century, and not of the past. The general plan of the university may not be so good as that of the typical German university, now adopted by France, but in such a magnificent field the new institution cannot but do valiant service for learning. It will be very unfortunate in the eyes of the educational world if professional jealousies or denominational differences seriously obstruct the progress of the movement; but if the opposition shall serve only to develop the strength of the new scheme and to prune it of undesirable attachments, the first vote of the council of forty may well be one of thanks to their "friends, the enemy."

NEWS FROM ABROAD.

ENGLAND.

HIGHER COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

A QUARTER of a century ago, the late Professor T. H. Green, reporting to the Schools Inquiry Commission, remarked rather sorrowfully that to the class of parents which formed the main constituency of the grammar schools the modern subjects were matters of equal indifference with the classical. "What they want for their sons is an education which will qualify them for business (*i.e.* which will enable them to read, write, do accounts, and compose an ordinary letter) in the most compendious possible way." He therefore despaired of gaining any good result by substituting for Latin such subjects as geography, modern languages, or physical science. A great change has taken place since 1866, and, whatever reasons we may find for discouragement as regards modern or commercial education, indifference on the part of the public is no longer one of them. It only needs a glance at English journals to see that higher commercial education is in very loud demand. Public bodies have taken up the matter warmly, and have proposed schemes, such as that of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of 1888, providing for almost every attainment that could be desired, and perhaps for something besides, for more at any rate than is practicable in most schoolrooms. The new Head Master of the City of London School, whose governing body is the Court of Common Council, is led to ask, in a recently published essay, whether the wants of commercial men can be satisfied in any one school at all. "For my part," says Mr. Pollard, "I am appalled when I consider the endowment that would be necessary to secure the adequate teaching of so many alternative subjects." There is no longer any apathy in England, and we must welcome the change. But at the same time we must recognize that the cry for commercial education is in some of its sounds out of harmony with the older voices. It reverses the ancient injunction, "not to learn many things, but much," and it is remarked that while the advocates of all the different branches of study, whether classical, mathematical, or scientific, have hitherto found a common ground of reasoning in the wish to develop the powers of the mind, "the commercial man seeks what is

of use; he wants if possible a trained product, but it must be an immediately useful product as well."

It would of course be a mistake to suppose that there has hitherto been no such thing as commercial education in England. The bare necessities of business life have always been obtainable, and many schools have devoted themselves to attempting the higher qualifications. But such efforts have for the most part been made by private establishments or by foundations of the poorer sort; often, too, there has been no real attempt, but only advertisement and imposition. What is new and interesting is the force which is now exerted by commercial opinion upon the best schools and upon the best schoolmasters, who have hitherto held somewhat aloof. We may expect in the aristocracy of our middle-class schools one of those moderate and disguised revolutions which are supposed to be characteristically English. Old subjects will be taught with new aims; some of the old subjects will gradually disappear; new subjects — and especially new languages — will be introduced.

As regards old subjects, Mr. Pollard points out that English is at present so taught that boys commonly leave our schools unable to write a continuous piece of English composition with even moderate success. It will be no bad thing if the commercial preference for what is of immediate use leads us to remedy such a defect as this. Mathematics must be subordinated to arithmetic and rapid calculation. Science must include practical mechanics. Geography must be helped by a museum to illustrate specially its elementary commercial side.

Which of the old grammar-school subjects must go? There is as yet no agreement for or against the retention of Latin. Latin in commercial education is the subject of a controversy analogous to that which is waged in a higher sphere over compulsory Greek. Mr. Pollard considers it an unanswered argument that the mass of boys can make no adequate progress in Latin within the time allowed. "What possible good can it be to a boy if, after several years of learning Latin, he is incapable of translating the simplest continuous piece of English into that language, and if he can only spell out with difficulty selected passages from Cæsar's *Gallie War* or from Cornelius Nepos?" On the other hand, it has been urged that such arguments as this, even granting their hypothesis, neglect part of the problem. In a purely commercial school, where all the boys are destined from the beginning to leave for business at an early age, this reasoning may prevail. But many people think with Matthew Arnold about purely commercial schools; commercial education must be given in schools which also prepare boys for the professions, and for the professions Latin is still a necessity. Parents, moreover, who have even moderate means, may well prefer to allow their sons some choice among careers, and some little culture beyond

what is immediately useful for business. Are boys to enter a "commercial side" in infancy and leave behind them all hope of ever following more congenial pursuits? The *Real Schule* system has its drawbacks: a gulf is set between business and the professions: the educational result is as undesirable as the social. Those, it is said, must rate commerce very low who propose schemes which prevent boys intended for it from associating even in their earliest years of school with such as aspire to the church, the law, or medicine. Two questions may be put to employers who exclude Latin and make much of shorthand and "deciphering German copy," viz.: (1) Would you, *as parents*, consent to confine your own sons to these subjects? (2) Would you send them to any school where none but these subjects are taught? The apology, of course, is that there is so much to be done. If the boys are obliged to know the French for "Rice is in demand" and the German for "Damaged by sea-water" (Oxf. & Camb. Coml. Cert. paper, 1888), there is no time for Latin. Probably it is a case for compromise: Latin will be retained, but will not be taught as if every one learning it were going to Cambridge.

Apart, however, from the difficulty of choosing among competing subjects, higher commercial education at present suffers, in spite of all the talking, from want of motive. The demand for it, though loud, is not effective, nor will it become so until encouragement is given systematically by direct rewards analogous to those which are offered to candidates for the learned professions and the public services. A father will not give his son an expensive commercial education if it entitles him to nothing more than copying letters and running errands at a few shillings a week. Recognizing this fact, some of the best houses of business are now offering situations to holders of commercial certificates, and an extension of this practice will do more to advance commercial education than any quantity of public speaking.

T. W. HADDON.

CITY OF LONDON SCHOOL, January 19, 1892.

FRANCE.

THE CLASSICS IN AUSTRIA.—THE LICENSE AND THE AGRÉGATION.—MINOR ITEMS.

France is not so hostile to the Triple Alliance but that it can see the good features of German, or Austrian, or Italian modes of instruction; and just now not only in Berlin and Vienna, but in Paris as well, the educators are discussing the proclamation of the Austro-Hungarian

Minister of Education concerning instruction in the classic languages. This proclamation may be conveniently summed up under the following three paragraphs.

First. The Latin and Greek composition which has heretofore been done by the student at home, will be entirely suppressed, and the time thus gained will be devoted to reading a greater amount of classical literature than has formerly been possible.

Second. In each of the higher classes during the last half of each term, the student shall translate, without previous knowledge of the passage and without aid of grammar or dictionary, a selection not yet read in the class, but chosen with care from the Latin and Greek authors whose works are being read. This translation is to be regarded as a composition in the student's native language, and is to be corrected and annotated as such, and not merely as a translation. The number of translations of this sort is fixed at ten from Latin and eight from Greek for each term.

Third. In the examinations for the baccalaureate, the examiners must take into account the student's private reading from the classics. Any student who is being examined may demand that passages from the authors whom he has read at home be presented to him in the course of the examination, and the examiners are bound to consider this Latin and Greek of as great importance as that read in the class.

The general opinion of French educators concerning this proclamation is that it will help to develop the student's individuality and will incite him to extend his reading in the classical literatures.

After the French boy has finished his course in college and received his degree of A.B., he either goes into business at once or enters the university. If he chooses the latter, he almost invariably studies for the two next higher degrees: the license, usually taken at the end of two years' study upon general subjects, including Latin, Greek, Mathematics, and Natural Sciences; and the *agrégation*, at the end of two years more, the examination for which is upon some selected subject, such as French, or English, or German, or history, or philosophy. The license may be compared with the degree of Master of Arts, the *agrégation* with that of Doctor of Philosophy. It is both instructive and amusing to study the lists of books upon which the examinations will be held this present year. In history, for example, of 144 subjects which may be used for theses only two have to do with American history. They are "The Régime of the French Colonies in America during the Reign of Louis XIV" and "The Monroe Doctrine."

For the *agrégation* in English the following books are prescribed for examination: Percy's *Reliques*, Udall's *Ralph Roister Doister*, Shakespeare's *Othello*, Bacon's *New Atlantis*, Milton's *Paradise Regained*,

Taylor's *Holy Dying*, Dryden's *Religio Laici*, Young's *Night Thoughts*, Johnson's *Journey to the Western Islands*, Crabbe's *Village*, Moore's *Irish Melodies*, Thackeray's *Henry Esmond*, Browning's *Paracelsus*. Enough work, certainly; but what an idea of English literature will the student gain from such a representative (?) course of reading! The English literature examination for the teachers in the secondary schools for women is even more inadequate, comprising, as it does, only Lamb's *Tales*, Crabbe's *Village*, and Elwall's *Selections in Prose and Verse*.

The books required for the *agrégation* in German seem to have been selected with the greatest care from twelve representative German authors. They are worth our notice if only to show us what is so often asked of the teacher, — a short course of readings in German. They are: 1, Gudrun's Sixth Adventure; 2, Gottfried von Strassburg's *Tristan*, verses 243–1788; 3, Luther's *Sendbrief an Papst Leo X*; 4, Lessing's *Nathan der Weise*; 5, Wieland's *Agathon*, erster theil; 6, Maler Mueller's *Die Schafschur*, *Das Nuss-Kernen*, *Faust's Leben*; 7, Voss's *Luiise*, *Homer's Ilias*, erster gesang; 8, Goethe's *Faust*, erster theil and the last three scenes; *Goetz von Berlichingen*; *Prometheus*; 9, Schiller's *Die Räuber*, *Das Siegesfest*; 10, Heine's *Romanzen*; 11, Lenan's *Polenlieder*, *Reiseblätter*; 12, Godfried Keller's *Romeo und Julie auf dem Dorfe*. Besides these books a general examination is required in German composition and in the history of the German language and literature.

The principal of the college of Saumur has published a *Project for the Organization of Practical Schools of Secondary Instruction*, in which he proposes to model the school upon the family, to divide the students into groups of thirty each, who shall live together under one roof, receive intellectual instruction from the masters and moral instruction from the tutors, separating what must go hand in hand. The idea is not new, hardly original, and the discussion it has provoked has resulted only in confirming the opinion that the project is not a good one.

Just now the French press is making considerable comment upon the conflict between the military law and the university enrollment. And it is having a difficult task to persuade the student that it is the most noble thing in the world for him to break into the middle of his university career to serve his year in the army.

The educational journals are discussing the question how to make geography cease to be a torture of the memory and become a science of observation and of reason. The benefits of the discussion are readily seen when one reads the communications of teachers who tell how they are modifying their instruction in this subject and with what gratifying success they meet. The model lessons, too, that these journals publish show a decided advance upon the ordinary methods. The contents of these French educational journals plainly manifest that the French

teachers are better prepared for their work than is the average American, that every teacher has received the training of a normal school, and is constantly studying the method and the philosophy of teaching ; in short, that with them teaching is a profession and not merely a wage-earning business. These journals contain model examination papers, some for use in the class-room by the teacher and others actually used at the normal examinations. A very casual glance shows that these questions are not easy and that they presuppose considerable professional training. So far has this idea gained power, — that he alone should instruct who knows how to impart knowledge, — that a decree is proposed by which an instructor is not promoted to a professorship unless he is successful in a competitive examination held to fill the vacant chair.

The advertisements in the educational journals here are even more varied than are those in America. Not only books and schools and private instruction are offered, but new methods are advertised, — “royal roads to learning.” Witness this example. “Ordinary Latin in Eight Days. Rapid Instruction in the Elements of Latin by means of Comparative and Synthetic Tables.” Why did we study Latin seven years?

An unsettled discussion at present is “Shall history be taught so as to include social economy on the one side and morals on the other?” Most of the French teachers say yes, but we believe that the scope would be so broad as to become practically impossible except in the university.

A course will be given this year at Paris on “The History of Work.”

The Minister of Public Instruction has announced that the Jesuit schools will again be subjected to the same conditions as in 1881, when the decree against religious institutions was issued.

The notable books of the past month are Hannequin's *Introduction to the Study of Psychology*; *General Lessons in Physics*, by James Chappuis; *French Literature*, by Paul Albert; *The Classic Spirit*, by Arnoud-Jeauti; *The Preparatory Year of Scientific Instruction*, by Paul Bert; *Celestial Globes*, a theoretical and practical description of astronomical phenomena, by J. F. Bonnel; *A Preparatory Course of French*, by Bouilliez and Lefebvre.

FRED PARKER EMERY,

Instructor in English, Mass. Institute of Technology.

PARIS, January, 1892.

GERMANY.

THE REFORM MOVEMENT.

You wish me to send you an account of German schools once a month. Though I am fain to give you all the information you want, I cannot deny that it is rather difficult at the present moment to get a clear notion

of the state of higher education in Germany, since we are on the point of reforming it. As, however, I am told that you are going to take some similar steps, it will, perhaps, interest you to know something about our reform movement and the reasons which led to it.

There had taken root in Germany a deep discontent at the method of teaching and the heavy work which day by day was laid upon the pupils in our upper schools. It was the general feeling that by overburdening the youthful mind the body was, or might be, seriously damaged. So a society for reforming the gymnasium was founded, but it could do very little, our nation being conservative to the utmost degree. Nobody knows how long this state of things might have lasted, had not an impulse for improvement been given by a man whose will could not easily be disregarded. It was no less a personage than the present Emperor who ordered a committee to be chosen from those who were best acquainted with German school affairs. The members of this committee assembled in Berlin. At the opening of the meetings the Emperor, having himself been brought up at a public gymnasium and knowing its failures from his own experience, made a speech in which he pointed out the chief subjects of deliberation; viz. first of all the question of overburdening the pupils and then the method of teaching the native language and history. "Henceforward," he said, "I wish the youths of my country to be led not from Marathon to Sedan, but from Sedan to Marathon and Thermopylæ."

The result of the meetings did not answer the expectations of the nation. A deep disappointment was felt; the general belief was that the committee had failed in their attempt at reform. From the book which was published on the deliberations, it appeared that but few practical results were attained. They had fixed the claims and privileges of the gymnasium and realgymnasium, and had resolved that in future no Latin composition should be required in the examination of maturity.

The words of the Emperor with reference to history had been misunderstood by some people. Instead of recognizing that no longer the history of Greece and Rome, but that of Germany, should be the principal subject of historical instruction in German schools, somebody wrote a book in which history actually retrograded and descended from the description of the present time down to former periods. It had the same effect as if in building a house you should begin with the construction of the roof, lifted high in air, without anything for it to rest upon. The book was universally condemned, and will probably soon be forgotten. The committee, it must be mentioned, had no share in the publication of the work above described.

Then there was another committee or council chosen, consisting of seven members only, to work out new plans of instruction. The result

of their work is not yet completely known, but from all I have heard I can say already that a great many men are not satisfied with their reforms, regarding them as insufficient.

On the other hand, it must not be forgotten that the system of instruction in our country is more difficult and complicated than in any other. Situated in the centre of Europe, Germany must cause her inhabitants to prepare for an intercourse with a great many nations. Since the German language presents great difficulties, especially to those who belong to the Romance race, the German merchant is obliged to correspond with his commercial friends abroad in the language of the foreigner. It is the pride of the well-bred German to be acquainted with the literary productions of almost all the neighboring countries, and not only to know them from translations, but to have read them in the original language. I don't mean to say that the Americans, English, or even French are not able to do the same. I am indeed far from thinking so; but all these nations may boast of a great advantage over us—they are richer than we. If a young Englishman wishes to learn German, he simply goes to Germany, abides there a year or two, and then returns with a perfect knowledge of the language. We are not rich enough to do this. The greater part of those who can write and speak a foreign tongue have never seen the country where it is spoken and have got their knowledge merely from books. It is the school, then, that must provide for the means of learning all this, and the question is, what way leads surest to that end. We are persuaded that the present mode of teaching is not the correct one. On what points it is deficient I will explain to you on another occasion.

But there is a still greater deficiency under which we are laboring now. By the present system of teaching, the mind of the boys is crammed with such an enormous quantity of learning that there remains no time for the training of the character. Any real reform of our schools must therefore tend to change them from schools in which the boys are only taught into schools in which the boys are brought up. We anxiously await the publication of the new plans of instruction, in order to know whether this great end will be attained or not. I shall write to you as soon as they appear. Their contents will form the subject of my next letter.

DRESDEN, Jan. 28, 1892.

Dr. OSCAR THIERGEH,
Professor at the Royal Corps of Cadets.

HOME NEWS.

THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN AND THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

THE President of the University of Michigan, in his report for the year ending September 30, 1891, announces that the policy of maintaining so-called diploma relations with the high schools of the state is now so firmly established, and the benefits springing from it are so obvious, that the University will hereafter relieve the school boards of the expense of sending committees of the Faculty to visit the schools. This is at once an evidence of a desire on the part of the University authorities to cultivate cordial relations with the Michigan schools, and a proof that this policy is recognized as useful to the University. The president mentions having abundant testimony from superintendents, teachers, and school boards, that such visits are frequently of great service to the schools.

He also expresses his gratification on hearing that some of the schools in Michigan think they can do the most or the whole of the work of the first college year, and can send their students prepared to take up the studies of the second year. He would be glad — “only too glad” — to be relieved altogether of the first year's work, and desires to encourage the schools in their praiseworthy efforts to carry their pupils one year further than they have done heretofore, provided they do not diminish the thoroughness of the more elementary work.

He asserts that undergraduate students when they arrive are younger by a full year or more, on the average, than they were twenty years ago. The ability to enter the University at an earlier age, in spite of the increased requirements for admission, is due to two causes: first, the schools are better than they were; and secondly, the more prosperous condition of the parents makes it less generally necessary than it was for the youth to spend years in earning the means to gain a college education.

SCHOOL MATTERS IN GEORGIA.

The Farmer Legislature of Georgia has shown a hearty interest in public education. It has trebled the general school fund of the state (now a million and a half) and has enacted a local option law under

which any county may tax itself additionally for public schools. Quite naturally the teacher whom the farmers elected Governor has, with the State School Commissioner, been earnest in fostering the rising interest in education, preaching the gospel of public schools in great public gatherings over all Georgia. This year for the first time teachers' institutes will be held in every county.

A Girls' Normal and Industrial School has been opened at Milledgeville, — the first state normal school in Georgia, — and another is projected at Athens in connection with the State University. The latter institution has turned over to the state for this purpose property worth \$100,000. The state has also established at Savannah a college for negroes, providing it with a president who is termed the most efficient educator of his race in Georgia. The new Technological School in Atlanta is commending itself most favorably to the people of the state, who have been hitherto somewhat slow to appreciate institutions of this type.

But with all her getting, Georgia fails to get public high schools. There are a few such schools in her cities, but they exist without warrant in the state law, and (unless our information is faulty) even in opposition to a constitutional provision forbidding that any except the elementary branches be taught in the public schools at the charge of the public funds. Obviously here is a serious weakness in the public school system of the state.

THE LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY.

In the revised requirements for admission to the Leland Stanford Junior University, as in the course of study in the college department, the elective system is most thoroughly adopted. Twenty-six subjects are specified; viz.: 1. English (2¹). 2-3. Elementary Algebra (1½). 4. Plane Geometry (1). 5. Solid Geometry and Trigonometry (1). 6. Advanced Algebra (1). 7. Physics (1). 8. Chemistry (1). 9. Physiology (1). 10. Botany (1). 11. Zoölogy (1). 12. Freehand Drawing (1). 13. American History (1). 14. English History (1). 15. Grecian and Roman History (1). 16. English Literature (1). 17. Spanish (1). 18-19. French (2). 20-21. German (2). 22-23. Latin (2). 24. Latin (1). 25-26. Greek (2). Candidates for admission by examination must present themselves in ten of these subjects, including 1, English. There is, therefore, but one compulsory requirement, and that is two years of English study. Two subjects on the list are unusual requirements, even among electives, — Freehand Drawing and Spanish.

¹ The figure in a parenthesis following each subject indicates the number of years of high-school work of which the requirement is an equivalent.

Provision is made for admission upon certificate from approved schools in lieu of examination, and also for special students, who must be at least twenty years of age, and not candidates for a degree, on such tests as the professor under whom the specialty is to be taken may impose.

In the University the degree of Bachelor of Arts will be granted to students who have satisfactorily completed the equivalent of fifteen hours of lecture or recitation weekly. Each student must select as his major subject or specialty the work of some one professor. This professor is to have authority to require such student to complete this major subject, and also as minor subjects such work in other departments as the professor may consider necessary or desirable collateral work. Such major and minor subjects taken together must not exceed the equivalent of five recitations per week, or one-third of the student's time for the four years of undergraduate work. The professor in charge of the major subject of any student is expected to act as advisor to the student in educational matters, and the recommendation of such professor is necessary to graduation.

The degree of Master of Arts calls for an added year of satisfactory work in residence at the University, and a thesis embodying the results of independent research. That of Doctor of Philosophy does not seem to require residence, but demands the completion of an approved course of study covering not less than three years after the reception of the Baccalaureate Degree, and an accepted printed thesis involving independent research. The degrees of Mechanical Engineer and Civil Engineer each necessitate a year of graduate work and a thesis. No honorary degrees will be given.

EXAMINATIONS FOR THE INDIAN SERVICE.

The classification of the Indian Service will go into effect March 1, 1892. On and after that date positions in that service can be obtained only after examination by the Civil Service Commission. There will be five grades of examination, viz.: Physician, superintendent, assistant superintendent, teacher, and matron. The salaries of physicians are from \$1000 to \$1200 a year, superintendents \$1200 to \$2000, assistant superintendents \$1000 to \$1500, teachers \$720 to \$1200, and matrons \$500 to \$720. Persons desiring to enter the service in any of the grades named are required to file applications on blanks which can be obtained without cost by writing to the U. S. Civil Service Commission, Washington, D.C. With every application blank there will be sent a pamphlet showing when and where examinations may be taken and giving the list of subjects. Although the Commission has been giving these examinations for the past six months, so far the supply of eligibles is not equal to the demand.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

CERTAIN HINDRANCES TO PROGRESS.

To the Editor of School and College : —

Many suggestive and interesting topics are touched upon by President Andrews in a recent number of SCHOOL AND COLLEGE. It is to be hoped that they will become the texts for a more full and thorough discussion of each than was possible in the limits of a single article.

The educational reforms enumerated are not all as distant as Utopia, but progress towards the nearest of them must be slow until there is a truer conception on the part of both higher and secondary schools of their mutual dependence, and a greater respect paid by each to the educational province of the other. Some of these reforms might have been already accomplished had not so large a percentage of the teachers in our secondary schools lacked a liberal education, and college instructors professional training. President Andrews sees signs of some advance, but there are still persons holding positions in secondary schools who affect contempt for the "mere information" to be gained in college halls; there are still college professors to whom the study of educational history and educational theory means only the discussion of such questions as whether a child should sit or stand when reciting, hold his book in his right hand or his left, and learn to write in print or script, with pen, pencil, or chalk, on paper, slate, or blackboard.

The last published report of the Regents of the University of the State of New York shows that only seventy per cent of the principals of the academies and high schools of that state have received any part of their education in a college, while only forty-seven per cent have received college degrees, and some of these are evidently honorary. Nearly one-third of the principals of the state are thus without college training, while the proportion of under teachers in the same schools who lack such education must be even greater. Yet doubtless in the great majority of these schools are to be found boys and girls preparing for college.

Statistics are not accessible to show the number of college instructors who have made any special study in a professional way of the history of educational theories and their application, but the number is undoubtedly very small since so few colleges and universities offer courses in

this subject or even recognize its importance. It is often considered a disqualification in a person desiring a college position to have taught in a secondary school where such knowledge could have been partially gained through practical experience.

Just as long as this chasm exists between the two great branches of our educational system, just so long will educational reform in each and both tarry by the way. President Andrews touches the root of our present difficulties when he says, "We shall never catch up with Europe till we pay better salaries and higher honors to teachers, particularly in primary and introductory work, nor until we give more study to the science and art of teaching."

LUCY M. SALMON.

VASSAR COLLEGE, POUGHKEEPSIE, N. Y.,
January 21, 1892.

A NEW SPIRIT NEEDED.

To the Editor of School and College:—

DEAR SIR: Your circular letter dated October, 1891, has just come to hand, and I am so much pleased with its sentiments, that I have sent my subscription (\$1.50) directly to Ginn & Co., Boston.

I trust you and your assistants will be able to give the country just such a journal as is needed to arouse new enthusiasm among teachers and professors, and shed floods of light in all the dark places of the land. It is marvellous to me, that so many old fossils are retained in the colleges, especially of our country.

We need a new awakening also in "Boards of Education" and in Boards of Control or Trustees of our colleges and universities.

College presidents and professors who are past their usefulness ought to step down and out, and give place to younger and more enthusiastic men who are abreast of the times.

I hold that college authorities ought to be men of large hearts as well as of brains, and that they should be in deepest sympathy with their students; that they should be strong magnets drawing irresistibly all the young men to them, making them feel that they (the president and professors) are their best friends, and not cold, stern critics and judges.

If this state of things could be brought about everywhere, all college tricks, hazing, and insubordination would be reduced to zero, or infinitely near to zero; and our college students would be all aglow with intensest enthusiasm to scale the "Heights of Knowledge," and would be "seeking for wisdom as for hidden treasure."

Such enthusiasm would reach down and draw up all secondary schools, and the whole land would soon be filled with *new glory*; for is not *teaching* the most holy, the most glorious, occupation among men?

Fraternally,

IRA W. ALLEN.

CHICAGO, December 7, 1891.

AN ANSWER TO "TWO PRACTICAL QUESTIONS."

To the Editor of School and College:—

The first of the practical questions on p. 59 of the January number of your magazine is indefinite so far as the "for me" is concerned,¹ but in answer to the spirit of the query I would say this: If the boys are not very decidedly inclined toward any particular pursuit, or do not show themselves above the average in talent, give them a good grammar school education. Then send them to some large village or small town where their high school course can be obtained while at the same time they are taught to be producers of some necessary of life. This can be done cheaply and will lift the lads above cringing dependence.

The second question,² while much like the first, has this difference, that the boy referred to, being the only son, is likely to receive a greater amount of attention. The money also which the father can spare will be trebled. Hence I suggest engineering, if the lad is of a mathematical turn; the ministry, if he is speculative; etc. with all the "ifs." But should he show no decided talent for art, music, or sculpture, (architecture is included in engineering, as any talent in that direction can be self-developed from that point), then make him a producer. By all means let his education be the means of making him independent.

Very truly,

JOS. F. KIMLER.

WILLIAMSPORT, MD., January 15, 1892.

¹ The question is, "I am a foreman in Curtis Sons' bindery, N.Y., receiving a salary of \$25 a week. I have a wife and three boys. We live in a flat on Madison Avenue and 112th St. What is the most practical education for me to give my boys?"

² It reads thus: "I am department manager in Hurlburt & Co.'s (wholesale drugs and perfumes). My salary is \$25 a week. I have a wife and three children. We own our house in the back of Brooklyn. What is the best education to give my boy to enable him to fight the world as he will find it? He is now five years of age, and must leave school probably at seventeen or eighteen."

REVIEWS.

A Short Historical Grammar of the German Language. Translated and adapted from Professor Behaghel's 'Deutsche Sprache' by EMIL TRECHMAN, M.A. (Oxon.), Ph.D., University of Sydney. London and New York, Macmillan & Co., 1891. — $7 \times 4\frac{3}{4}$ in., pp. 194.

Teachers of German, especially in advanced classes, will cordially welcome this little book, which comes so belated into the list of philological works of a semi-popular character. French and English works of the kind have so long been accessible, that it seems strange that the language of the nation philological *par excellence* should have had to wait until now for its concise and readable history. The original work was prepared by a well-known authority in the department of Teutonic philology and literature, as one of a series of popular works in the various sciences. In this instance the word "popular" has a somewhat narrowed application, for, as remarked in the prefatory paragraph, it is "in educated circles" that "a lively interest is taken in the phenomena of language." It may be readily conceded that what is easy reading concerning their language for well-educated Germans, is sufficiently scientific to meet the needs of college students in America. For these, and for the majority of teachers,—not only of the German but, almost as much so, of the English language,—it is an invaluable work. The author has avoided to a remarkable degree the reef upon which it would have been predicted that a German was destined to make shipwreck. He is eminently practical. He takes into account that the average, even German, mind does not take kindly to the minutiae of phonetics, and spares the reader the details. What he presents in this kind is so delivered as to be almost interesting reading for anyone. The account of the two sound shiftings is the best presentation of the subject we have anywhere met.

The work — 172 small duodecimo pages, exclusive of a full index of 22 more — is divided into two parts, a so-called "Introduction" and the Grammar proper. Under the former heading, pp. 1-67, we find the history of the language, discussing briefly: (1) the several periods—Pre-Teutonic, Teutonic, Old, Middle, and High German; (2) the principles of language, dealing with formal changes (phonetic and folk-etymologic); and (3) the demands for extension of vocabulary, and the

methods of the same, by changes of meaning and neologism. In the second part we have a discussion of the modern German language in its orthography, accentuation (a valuable chapter), phonology, inflexions, and syntax, followed by especially interesting chapters on personal and place names, and the influence of foreign languages upon the German.

The translator has laid his readers under obligations by the excellence of the English form, the wise exercise of editorial discretion, and by the liberal addition of English parallels in illustration of many points.

CHARLES E. FAY.

The Education of Girls. By FÉNELON. Translated from the French by KATE LUFTON, M.A. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1891.—7½ x 5 in., pp. viii, 120.

In reading the title of this book, we are not to be terrified with the apprehension of new and startling theories about colleges and annexes for women. Fénelon's treatise is not new to the English-reading public, as there have been at least two or three translations which have been published, and the views which are presented are far from revolutionary. We are reminded, first, by the very thoughts aroused by the title, how far we have moved in two hundred years. The education of girls suggests to us advanced institutions: this is mainly a treatise upon the training of children. It is based upon the old instinctive theory of the masculine mind that man has an incontestable right of proprietorship over woman. She is not to be educated; that is, she is not to develop according to her fullest powers: she is to be trained, moulded for an allotted sphere, with the understanding that men know just how big that sphere is. To speak specifically, she may be a wife, and she may be a nun; but there the priestly, and generally the masculine, mind says the sphere has reached the limits of expansibility. The good archbishop meant to educate with a very definite aim.

The culture which Fénelon considered adequate for a girl could hardly demand all of her powers. We may briefly sum up a few points. "Teach a girl to read and write correctly." That is certainly good as far as it goes. "Girls ought, also, to comprehend the four rules of arithmetic." "It would be well, also, for girls to know something of the principal rules of law." "Show them at the same time how incapable they are of penetrating the difficulties of the law." That seems discouraging. "I think," he adds, "it is not unprofitable to allow girls, according to their leisure and the extent of their intelligence, to read profane books which contain nothing dangerous to the passions." "It is ordinarily believed that a girl of noble birth should learn Italian and Spanish; but I consider nothing less useful than such studies, unless a

girl is in attendance upon some Spanish or Italian princess." "The study of Latin would be much more reasonable, for that is the language of the Church." "I should be willing, however, to teach Latin only to girls of sound judgment and modest behavior."

All this sounds a little strange; but we are, perhaps, hardly called upon, in a book which is two hundred years old, to point out in it what is old-fashioned. We must acknowledge that in those times it was quite bold to suggest Latin at all. He also encourages the study of history, and the pursuit of music and art, though he is impressed by the dangers which lurk in the former, and the latter is expected to show its worth especially in connection with needle-work. It is, further, a matter of no small interest to notice how far Fénelon anticipated the principles announced by Froebel. There is a keen appreciation of child human nature evinced in the chapter treating of indirect instruction.

The pre-eminent merit of the book is not so much in what it directly states as in the fact that the character, the beautiful spirit of the author, makes itself everywhere felt. The goodness of the man makes the book permanently good and helpful. He was a master in moulding character, and in this we are glad to learn all his secrets.

The work of translation, as far as I can judge from a very brief comparison with the original, seems to have been carefully done. The book is issued in attractive form.

HENRY M. TYLER.

An Inductive Latin Primer. By WILLIAM R. HARPER, Ph.D., President of the University of Chicago, late of Yale University, and ISAAC B. BURGESS, A.M., Boston Latin School. New York, American Book Company, 1891. — pp. viii, 424.

This book is based on the same theory of treating the subject as the *Inductive Latin Method* by the same authors, but is intended for younger pupils. The first sixty-five pages are devoted to a thorough synopsis of English Grammar, specially adapted to the needs of those who are to study Latin. Thus five cases are recognized in nouns and pronouns, all the cases found in Latin but the Ablative. In the syntax, also, the many constructions that are common to English and Latin are treated in the same way as they will be presented in the study of Latin. The exposition of formation of words is concise, but comprehends more information on the subject than nine-tenths of the graduates of our grammar schools carry away with them. Of the value of this part of the book, irrespective of the "inductive" method upon which it is based, there can be little difference of opinion. The use by competent teachers of a manual of English like this in the primary schools would enable the

secondary schools to accomplish more and better work, in English, as well as in foreign languages, whether ancient or modern. The authors have not over-stated the unfortunate deficiencies of our schools in asserting that "many pupils come to our high schools with almost no practical mastery of English grammar." The inductive presentation of the elements of Latin which occupies the rest of the book is based on the first twenty chapters of the first book of Caesar's *Gallic War*. Each lesson is based on a sentence or short group of sentences of the Latin text, which is to be committed to memory. The literal meaning of the words is given, and the forms and constructions are determined "inductively" by the knowledge of grammatical principles which the pupil brings with him to the task. Thus, so far as the theory is adhered to, no word-form is given until it has been found in the text. The first declension is given in full in the ninth lesson, by adding three case forms to those which have thus far occurred in the text. Teachers not devoted to the inductive method will probably doubt the expediency of this fragmentary and dislocated treatment of the subject of inflection. Even the youngest pupils who study Latin are mature enough to digest and use a systematic statement of the elementary facts in a language, and in any case, they are more likely to regard the Latin text as illustrating the "observations" they are taught to make, than as the source from which they may derive those observations or facts by induction. The authors have, however, undoubtedly displayed the utmost fidelity and thoroughness in developing the method of treatment which they have undertaken. Where pupils can be taken at the proper age, by teachers willing to perform conscientiously their own, by no means small, part of the work, and where the proper amount of time required by the method can be afforded, this book would impart a good foundation for future progress.

EDWARD H. CUTLER.

The Plant World: its Past, Present, and Future. An Introduction to the Study of Botany. By GEORGE MASSEE, Lecturer on Botany to the London Society for the Extension of University Teaching. With fifty-six illustrations. London, Whittaker & Co.; New York, Macmillan & Co., 1891. — $7\frac{1}{4} \times 5$ in., pp. x, 212.

The object of this little book, the preface of which is dated at Kew, is, in the words of the author, "to furnish an introduction to the study of Botany from the standpoint of considering plants as living organisms, subject to all the varied vicissitudes that are more generally recognized as influencing animal life"; or, in other words, to give a concise statement of the theory of evolution as it applies to the vegetable

kingdom. The proofs of the evolution of all groups of plants from seaweeds (algæ) must be sought in larger and more advanced works than this.

The subjects discussed in these seven chapters are : plant architecture, involving the changes of form and structure that necessarily result from a change of habitat or environment ; the chemistry and physics of plant-life, including the influence of light, the origin of carnivorous plants, of parasites and of saprophytes ; the protective arrangements evolved by plants in their struggle for existence, involving protection against climate and against living enemies ; the reproduction of plants by both the asexual and the sexual methods, showing how the latter was evolved from the former, and the advantages it possesses ; the relationship amongst plants ; fossil plants ; and the geographical distribution of plants.

To one who already has a sufficient knowledge of systematic botany, this little book furnishes an introduction to a wider field.

Some of the 56 illustrations have a familiar appearance. We recognize half of them as having already done service in Thome's *Lehrbuch der Botanik*.

The author would have done a kindness for his readers if he had paid more attention to the structure of his sentences, some of which reach the inordinate length of 170, 248, and even 340 words.

JOSEPH JACKSON.

AMONG OUR EXCHANGES.

THE February *Atlantic* is a very attractive number. Professor Lanciani's account of the Pageant at Rome, for which Horace wrote his *Carmen Seculare*, is of the highest interest, and scarcely less pleasing to the teacher is Miss Dana's description of "What French Girls Study." A personal as well as historical interest will lead many to read Professor Shaler's reasons for fidelity to the North when Kentucky was wavering. It would be hard to find a dull page in the whole issue.

The *Arena* for February opens with a sketch of the life of Herbert Spencer, accompanied by a portrait. Robert H. Taylor sees danger ahead from the present mode of presidential election, and proposes as an effectual remedy a system of cumulative voting. Lionel Sheldon discusses the railroad problem, arriving at the conclusion that consolidation or government ownership will eventually relieve the people from the unjust burdens they now bear. Other articles treat of hypnotism, the sub-treasury plan, the atonement, and Dom Pedro. The school scenes in Hamlin Garland's serial are spirited and realistic, but exag-

gerate the school-boy's dialect beyond truth. The number has much in it to stimulate thought.

The *Popular Science Monthly* for February, besides articles less interesting to teachers, has a charming description by President Jordan of the origin of the Yellowstone Park; a paper on electricity in relation to science by Professor William Crookes; a defence by Professor Henderson of the nationalization of University Extension, recently criticised by the editor, and also a rejoinder in the Editor's Table; a continuation by Mary Alling Aber of "An Experiment in Education" begun in the preceding number; and interesting articles by James Sully and De Lacaze Duthiers on the reasoning powers and language of animals.

The February *Lippincott's* has for its first article "Roy the Royalist" by William Westall. It is a vigorous picture of life in France at the close of the last century, as stirring to the blood as a bugle call. Of the shorter articles, the sketch of Prince Gallitzin and Mrs. Sherwood's "Recollections" are especially interesting. A portrait of this lady author faces the title-page. Julian Hawthorne writes about "Secretary Rusk's Crusade," and Henry Clews about the "Board of Trade and the Farmer."

Education for last month has a sober discussion of the "Pros and Contras of University Extension," by President Charles W. Super; a continuation of Dr. Mayo's article on state support for secondary and higher education; an account of the early years of Whitman College, by Ex-President Anderson; and an essay on "The University Spirit" by John Pierce. There are other papers of a more general nature. The editorials discuss Dr. Griffis's views of Dutch influence on the Pilgrims, and President Eliot's "persistent attempt to discredit the American Common School." (!)

In the *Educational Review* for February, President Gilman argues for a liberal education that shall include "mathematics, ancient and modern languages, and literature, science, history, and philosophy"; Professor Comey returns to the charge with well-supported statements about the growth of the colleges in the United States, which are most encouraging; Professor Pancoast criticises the college entrance requirements in English which have recently found favor; and John Bigham relates the history of the Amherst plan of college government. This can almost be called a college number, though there is much of interest for teachers in other fields.

The February *Academy* reprints from the *Contemporary Review* Dr. Welldon's strong article on "The Position of Greek in the Universities." Next follows a description of University Extension by Miss Gardiner. Professor R. H. Alvey writes of English in the Public Schools, Miss Lathe has an essay on "Two Gentlemen of Verona," and Dr. MacDonald

discusses Hamlet's insanity. Mr. J. W. MacDonald, using Professor Levermore's December address as a text, advocates broader methods in History; and Mr. Thurber has a criticism upon some of Mr. Grandgent's remarks at the same meeting. There is also given a résumé of the proceedings at the holiday conference of the Associated Academic Principals of New York.

The *Educational Times* (London) occupies some twenty-eight closely printed pages with a list of pupils who passed the Christmas examination at the College of Preceptors. Altogether, over sixteen thousand candidates presented themselves for examination during the year, eighty per cent of whom were successful in winning their certificates. This issue contains reports of the Half-yearly Meeting of the College, and of meetings of the Head-masters' Association, and the Association of Principals of Private Schools, all in London. A leading subject of editorial discussion is the proposed Albert University. There are news items of interest from the Universities and other educational centres. On the whole, this issue is less attractive to American readers than that of the preceding month, which had a paper by Oscar Browning.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

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American School Board Journal. Monthly. \$2.00 per year. Chicago.
Atlantic Monthly, The. \$4.00 per year. Boston.
 BATES COLLEGE. Catalogue, 1891-92. Lewiston, Me.
 BOWSER, EDWARD A. Elements of Plane and Solid Geometry. Second Edition. Boston, D. C. Heath & Co.
 Brockton, Mass. School Report, 1891.
Brown Magazine, The. Monthly. \$2.00 per year. Providence.
 BROWN UNIVERSITY. Catalogue, 1891-92.
Canada Educational Monthly. \$1.00 per year. Toronto.
 CHAMBERLAIN, A. F. Modern Languages and Classics in America and Europe since 1880. Paper. Toronto, Press of the Week.
College Star, The. Monthly. 50c. per year. Warrenton, Mo.
Colorado School Journal. Monthly. \$1.00 per year. Denver.
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Education. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Boston, Frank H. Kasson.
Educational Courant. Monthly. Louisville, Ky.
Educational Times, The. Per number 7d. London, 89 Farringdon St.
 FRINK, HENRY ALLYN. An Address Commemorative of Richard Henry Mather. Amherst.
 GEIKIE, ARCHIBALD. Geological Sketches at Home and Abroad. New York, Macmillan & Co.
 GORDY, J. P. Lessons in Physiology. Athens, O., Athens Publishing Co.
 HART, ALBERT BUSHNELL. Epoch Maps illustrating American History. Limp cloth, 50c. New York, Longmans, Green & Co.
 HARTFORD HIGH SCHOOL. Triennial Catalogue, 1891.
Intelligence. Semi-monthly. \$1.50 per year. Chicago, E. O. Vaile.
Journal of Pedagogy. Quarterly. \$1.00 per year. Athens, O.
 JOYNES, EDWARD S. Contes de Fées. Classic Fairy Tales for Beginners in French. Boston, D. C. Heath & Co.

- Kansas City, Mo. School Report, 1890-91.
La Grange College Magazine. Monthly. \$1.00 per year. La Grange College, Mo.
 LAUER, PAUL E. Church and State in New England. (Johns Hopkins University Studies, Tenth Series, II-III.) 50c. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press.
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 LELAND STANFORD JR. UNIVERSITY. Circular of Information, No. 6. Palo Alto, Cal.
Lend-a-Hand. Monthly. \$2.00 per year. Boston.
Letter of Columbus to Luis de Sant Angel. (American History Leaflets.) New York, A. Lovell & Co.
Lippincott's Monthly Magazine. \$3.00 per year. Philadelphia.
Literary Digest, The. Weekly. \$3.00 per year. New York.
 LOBATSCHESKY, NICHOLAS. Geometrical Researches on the Theory of Parallels. Translated by George Bruce Halstead. Fourth Edition. Paper. Bulletin of the University of Texas.
Monism, Its Scope and Import. Chicago. Open Court Publishing Co.
Monist, The. Quarterly. \$2.00 per year. Chicago. Open Court Publishing Co.
Nation, The. Weekly. \$3.00 per year. New York.
 Natural Science Papers at Primary Section of State Teachers' Association, 1891. St. Paul, Minn.
New Englander and Yale Review. Monthly. \$4.00 per year. New Haven.
 New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. Proceedings at 6th annual meeting, 1891.
New England Journal of Education. Weekly. \$2.50 per year. Boston.
 New York State Stenographers' Association. Proceedings of 15th and 16th annual meetings. Elmira, N.Y.
North Carolina Teacher. \$1.00 per year. Raleigh, N.C.
Ohio Educational Monthly. \$1.50 per year. Akron, O.
 OLIVET COLLEGE. Catalogue, 1891-92. Olivet, Mich.
 Oskaloosa, Iowa. School Report, 1891.
 Permanent Census Bureau, A. Letter from the Secretary of the Interior. Paper. Washington, Gov't Printing Office.
Post Lore. Monthly. \$2.50 per year. Philadelphia.
Popular Educator. Monthly. \$1.00 per year. Boston.
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Public School Journal, The. Monthly. \$1.50 per year. Bloomington, Ill.
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Texas School Journal. Monthly. \$1.50 per year. Dallas, Tex.
 THORNTON, CHARLES S. Report on Cook Co. Normal School, and Supplementary Report. Paper.
 TUFTS COLLEGE. Catalogue, 1891-92.
 TYLER, HENRY M. A Greek Play and its Presentation. \$1.00. Northampton, Mass., Pub. by the Author.
 UNIVERSITY GRAMMAR SCHOOL. Catalogue, 1890-91. Providence.
 UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN. President's Report, 1891.
 UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE. Register, 1890-91; Announcement, 1891-92.
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 U. S. Commissioner of Education. Report for 1888-89. 2 vols. Washington, Gov't Printing Office.
 VERMONT ACADEMY. What it is, where it is, and what it does. Illustrated. Paper.
Virginia School Journal. Monthly. \$1.00 per year. Richmond, Va.
Western School Journal. Monthly. \$1.25 per year. Topeka, Kas.
Wisconsin Journal of Education. Monthly. \$1.00 per year. Madison, Wis.

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September to December, 1891.

- Action of the College upon the Schools. WM. C. COLLAR. *Educational Review*, Dec.
 Aims and History of the Society for the Extension of University Teaching. E. J. JAMES.
Our Day, Oct.
 All About the Harvard Annex: How the Students Amuse Themselves. F. B. W. *Boston Transcript*, Nov. 14.
 American Boys' School, An: What It Should Be. HENRY A. COIT. *Forum*, Sept.
 American Girl Student in Paris. LUCY H. HOOPER. *Home Journal*, Dec. 9.
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 Bodleian Library. *Quarterly Review*, Oct.
 Brunswick and Bowdoin College. C. L. SLATTERY. *New England Magazine*, Dec.
 Catholic University, The. Announcements for 1891-92. *N. Y. Freeman's Journal*, Sept. 12.
 Chicago Manual Training School for Boys. *Chicago Post*, Sept. 18.
 Co-Education. ELIZABETH CADY STANTON. *Rochester Herald*, Oct. 16.
 College Athletics and Heart-Disease. DUDLEY A. SARGENT. *Educational Review*, Dec.
 College in the Eighteenth Century, A: The College of Vannes. JULES SIMON. *Revue de Famille*, Oct. 15.
 Composition. KATHERINE H. SHUTE. *Education*, Nov.
 Composition Work in a Chicago High School. *Academy*, Oct.
 Compulsory Greek. J. B. BURY. *Fortnightly Review*, Dec.
 Contemporary Educational Thought in Great Britain. J. G. FITCH. *Educational Review*, Dec.
 Day Element in a Public School. A. C. W. TAIT. *Educational Review* (London), Dec.
 Difficulty of Acquiring the French Language. MARY HENRY. *Chicago Post*, Dec. 28.
 Do We Teach Geology? ROBERT T. HILL. *Popular Science Monthly*, Nov.
 Early Greek Education. E. D. W. GRAY. *University Magazine*, Oct.
 Educated Proletariat in Germany. *Educational Review*, Nov.
 Educational Value of English. *Educational Review* (London), Nov. and Dec.
 Education of Girls. *Chicago Press*, Nov. 22.
 Education of Woman. Madame ANNA LAMPÉRIÈRE. *Nouvelle Revue*, Oct. 1.
 Education of Women. *N. Y. Ledger*, Dec. 12.
 English Literature in the Schools. S. THURBER. *Academy*, Dec.
 English University Life for Women. ANNE J. CLOUGH. *Forum*, Nov.
 Fees, Work, and Wages in Girl's High Schools. H. W. POLLARD. *Murray's Magazine*, Oct.
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 German and American Schools. JULES AUGRENIER. *N. Y. Observer*, Sept. 17.
 German Universities. ANDREW STEWART. *Washington Star*, Nov. 14.
 Girls at Vassar, The. ALICE MACGOWAN. Illustrated. *Cleveland Plain Dealer*, Dec. 13.
 Greek in the Universities. E. A. FREEMAN. *Contemporary Review*, Nov.
 Greek in Our Gymnasiums. A. SMITAL. *Kritische Revue aus Oesterreich* (Vienna), Sept. 15.
 Growth in Our Colleges. JOEL SKELTON. *Boston Commonwealth*, Nov. 16.
 Half-Time System. *Lend a Hand*, Nov.
 Higher Education and Practical Life. DUDLEY SHELDON. *New Englander*, Dec.
 Higher Education of Women. ARTHUR BROOKS. *N. Y. Post*, Nov. 7.
 Higher Education of Women. MARY PUTNAM JACOBI. *N. Y. Post*, Nov. 21.
 Higher Education of Women. Home Life for Girls in College. MAUD WILDER GOODWIN. *N. Y. Post*, Nov. 28.
 History of the Ladies' College. DOROTHEA BEALE. *Cheltenham Ladies' College Magazine*, Autumn.
 History Work in High Schools. ROSE B. WINTERBURN. *Academy*, Dec.
 How Greek Should be Taught. Editorial in *N. Y. Sun*, Dec. 13.
 Ideals of the New American University. DAVID S. JORDAN. *Forum*, Sept.
 Ideal University. JOHN MILLER. *North American Review*, Sept.
 International University Extension. JAMES H. ROSS. *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, Nov. 14.
 Irish College at Paris, The. EUGENE DAVIS. *Boston Pilot*, Aug. 29.
 Japanese College, A. *Rochester Democrat and Chronicle*, Nov. 2.
 Lafayette College. B. W. OWEN. *Church at Home and Abroad*, Dec.
 Latin Question, The. JOSEPH JACKSON. *Academy*, Dec.
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- Life in a Jesuit College. H. DZIEWICKI. *Nineteenth Century*, Nov.
 Lowell as an Educator. SETH LOW. *Educational Review*, Dec.
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